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ABSTRACT

This Oversight Hearing on the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act was held before the Subcommittee on Equal Opportunities of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Ninety-Fourth Congress, Second Session. The Hearing, held in Washington, D. C., on June 29, 1976, speaks to the concerns of those working with delinquent-prone youth. (Author)

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OVERSIGHT HEARING ON THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT

HEARING

BEFORE THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES

OF THE

COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND LABOR

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

NINETY-FOURTH CONGRESS

SECOND SESSION

HEARING HELD IN WASHINGTON, D.C.,
JUNE 29, 1976

Printed for the use of the Committee on Education and Labor
CARL D. PERKINS, *Chairman*

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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CONTENTS

	Page
Hearing held in Washington, D.C., June 29, 1976	1
Statement of:	
Watson, Dr. Bernard C., professor and chairman of the Department of Urban Education, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa	2
Prepared statements, letters, supplemental material, etc.:	
Watson, Dr. Bernard C., Temple University, "Schooling, Violence and Vandalism: Promising Practices and Policy Alternatives," a report	2

OVERSIGHT HEARING ON THE JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION ACT

TUESDAY, JUNE 29, 1976

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES
OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND LABOR,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met at 10 a.m., pursuant to call, in room 2261, Rayburn House Office Building, Hon. Augustus F. Hawkins (chairman) presiding.

Members present: Representatives Hawkins and Clay.

Staff present: Amy Libenson, research assistant; Martin Lavor, minority senior legislative associate, and Carole Schanzer, clerk.

Mr. HAWKINS. The subcommittee will come to order.

The Subcommittee on Equal Opportunities is convened today for the purpose of conducting a hearing on school violence in conjunction with its oversight responsibility for the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974. The act, which was sponsored in the Senate by my distinguished colleague from Indiana, Senator Birch Bayh—S. 821—and by myself in the House—H.R. 15276—provided for Federal coordination of policy dealing with the problems and causes of delinquency. One aspect of the act recognized the importance of the schooling experience and was specifically designed to prevent unwarranted and arbitrary suspensions. In light of this provision, the subcommittee is examining the nature and extent of violence in the schools and its impact on educational policies as well as on employment policies.

My own city of Los Angeles is among those cities with a serious problem of violence in the schools. Dr. William Lucas, assistant superintendent of the L.A. unified school district, testified before the Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education on June 18, 1975. Dr. Lucas noted that the reported student criminal incidents rose from 7,813 in 1972–73 to 10,085 in 1973–74, representing a 20 percent increase. He further stated that although the Los Angeles district has numerous promising programs aimed at alleviating this situation, they are limited due to inadequate funding.

Violence in the schools is a highly emotional issue. The subcommittee, therefore, finds it necessary to objectively examine the extent of the violence in order to determine possible policy alternatives.

Today, we are pleased to have Dr. Bernard Watson, professor and chairman of the Department of Urban Education at Temple University in Philadelphia here to testify. He has been researching violence in the schools for a year and is author of a report entitled,

"Schooling, Vandalism and Violence: Promising Practices and Policy Alternatives." Dr. Watson is accompanied by his assistant, Ms. Linda Darling Hammond.

Dr. Watson, we're very pleased to have you here to testify this morning, as well as your assistant Ms. Hammond.

We hope that we can expedite this hearing. I understand that we may have some interruptions due to the fact that the House is in session. Therefore, if the bells ring, we'll suspend for a few minutes until the members have an opportunity to vote. It is my understanding that Mr. Buchanan, the ranking minority member, is on his way. We hope he will be able to join us at an early time. Mr. Clay, from St. Louis, is also here. I understand he also has problems in his schools. Mr. Clay, do you have any opening remarks?

Mr. CLAY. I have no statement, Mr. Chairman.

Mr. HAWKINS. Then we will proceed.

Dr. Watson, it's a pleasure to have you before the committee.

STATEMENT OF DR. BERNARD C. WATSON, PROFESSOR AND CHAIRMAN OF THE DEPARTMENT OF URBAN EDUCATION, TEMPLE UNIVERSITY, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Dr. WATSON. Mr. Chairman and Congressman Clay, we wish to express our appreciation for having the opportunity to testify before this subcommittee today. I have with me the copy of the completed report which I will turn over to you and we will, in our testimony, do a summary of our findings in the report.

Mr. HAWKINS. Without objection the complete report will be printed in the record.

[Document referred to follows:]

SCHOOLING, VIOLENCE AND VANDALISM: PROMISING PRACTICES AND POLICY ALTERNATIVES—BERNARD C. WATSON, PH. D., TEMPLE UNIVERSITY

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to acknowledge and express their appreciation to Congressman Augustus Hawkins, who commissioned this study, and to Ms. Patsy Fleming and Mrs. Eleanor Farrar, who provided advice and encouragement. The superintendents, central office administrators, principals, teachers, counselors, students, security personnel and individuals in school district research offices, were cooperative and gave freely of their time. Without their cooperation, the study could not have been completed.

A special note of appreciation is due Ms. Lonni Moseley, who while completing her graduate program and holding a full time administrative position in private business, contributed significantly to the completion of this report.

INTRODUCTION

A valid discussion of violence and vandalism in school districts requires a concomitant understanding of the context within which the schools operate. The crime rate across the United States has increased sharply over the past five years (see Table below); and the incidence of crime in cities where school districts were examined for this study has been considerably greater than in the school districts themselves. In most cases, the schools represent an oasis of safety when they are compared to the environment within the city at large.

TABLE 1.—1974 U.S. CRIME RATES PER 10,000 INHABITANTS

Category	Rate	Percentage change from 1968
Burglary	142.90	+46.1
Larceny-Theft	247.30	+28.9
Auto theft	46.06	+5.9
Total property crimes	436.26	+31.0
Robbery	20.88	+41.1
Assault	21.42	+39.7
Rape	2.61	+41.8
Murder	.97	+32.9
Total violent crimes	45.88	+40.3

Source: Crime in the United States (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 1974). Most current available data.

In 1974–1975, for six cities where school district data were available, city burglary rates ranged from 3 to 9 times as high as school district rates; city larceny rates ranged from 10 to 20 times as high as school district rates; city robbery rates ranged from 8 to 27 times as high as school district rates; city assault rates ranged from 1 to 4 times as high as school district rates; and city homicide rates ranged from 10 to 50 times as high as school district rates.

Atlanta, which has one of the highest rates of homicide in the country (6.19 per 10,000 inhabitants), had none last year within the school district. The city's robbery rate was 27 times higher than that of the school district; the rate of theft (larceny) was 20 times higher, and the rate of burglary was 9 times higher (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.—COMPARISON OF 1974 CITY CRIME RATES TO 1974-75 SCHOOL DISTRICT CRIME RATES

[Number of criminal incidents per 10,000 people]

Category	Atlanta		Baltimore		Detroit		Los Angeles		Oakland		Philadelphia	
	City	Schools	City	Schools	City	Schools	City	Schools	City	Schools	City	Schools
Burglary	337.80	35.78	207.44	(1)	279.46	(1)	239.48	83.56	391.15	57.81	108.20	18.07
Larceny-theft	388.42	19.22	340.75	41.44	279.50	3.99	308.39	34.38	461.89	25.83	138.77	(1)
Total, property crimes	726.22	55.00	548.19	(1)	558.96	(1)	547.87	117.94	853.04	83.64	247.97	(1)
Robbery	87.59	3.22	112.70	22.80	133.39	2.30	48.45	5.95	79.73	5.80	51.64	4.59
Assault [2]	67.73	22.55	70.42	62.00	45.96	12.91	51.27	13.04	60.15	23.11	26.86	21.27
Rape-sex offenses [3]	3.85	2.67	5.37	.06	8.32	.87	7.02	1.42	6.80	1.93	4.08	(1)
Homicide	6.19	0	2.38	(1)	5.03	(1)	2.13	.10	2.24	.35	2.57	.04
Total, violent crimes	170.36	28.44	190.87	84.95	192.70	16.18	108.87	20.51	148.92	36.19	85.15	27.41

[1] Data not available for 1974-75.

[2] Figures for "assault" are not strictly comparable since city rates include aggravated assaults only, while school districts report both simple and aggravated assaults.

[3] Figures for "rape" are not strictly comparable since city rates include rape only, while school districts report sex offenses ranging from rape to "immoral behavior."

"War Neurosis Seen in Ghetto Teachers" trumpeted a signed article by Harry Nelson, medical writer of the *Los Angeles Times* in the December 15, 1975 issue of the paper. "Harried Teachers Are Attacking Problems of School and Vandalism" was the headline in a Washington, D.C. paper reporting on a special feature in the February issue of the *NEA Reporter*, a periodical sent to the NEA's 1.7 million members. Philadelphia's KYW radio, on March 18, 1976, highlighted a report by Research For Better Schools, a Philadelphia based research laboratory on increasing school violence and vandalism in schools across the country.[1] In newspapers, magazines and other periodicals, on television newscasts and special features, the story presented to the public has been one of increasing violence, attacks on students, teachers and administrators and a general lack of discipline in schools which was and is creating a climate of fear and apprehension for educators, children and youth and the general public. Senator Birch Bayh of Indiana, after holding extensive hearings and gathering data from school systems across the country concluded that violence, vandalism and other antisocial or disruptive behaviour was a national problem requiring immediate action.

The attention devoted to these phenomena by the media is only the tip of the iceberg. It is representative of the concern expressed by educators and parents over what they perceive to be the breakdown of discipline in public schools specifically, and to a lesser degree, schools in the private sector. Beginning in 1968, discipline in the schools has been high on the list of concerns expressed by American citizens in the annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education. For the past few years discipline has placed number one on that list of concerns, reflecting the growing fear that American schools are unsafe places for parents to send their children each day. This fear, of course, has been amplified by the reports, studies, hearings and discussions conducted by educators, social scientists, concerned citizen groups and legislative bodies throughout the country. Almost without exception, the reports from these conferences and studies conclude that increasing numbers of violent acts against persons and property are occurring on school grounds, in school buildings and classrooms both during and after school hours.

One such report which has been highly publicized and which has contributed greatly to the growing alarm is the Report of Senator Birch Bayh's Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Deliquency. This report was entitled: *Our Nation's Schools—A Report Card: "A" in School Violence and Vandalism*. This preliminary report, based on the results of a questionnaire distributed to over seven hundred large school districts throughout the country as well as the testimony of educators and school security directors, stated in its opening pages that:

> . . . Our schools are experiencing serious crimes of a felonious nature including brutal assaults on teachers and students, as well as rapes, extortions, burglaries, thefts and an unprecedented wave of wanton destruction and vandalism. Moreover, our preliminary study of the situation has produced compelling evidence that this level of violence and vandalism is reaching crisis proportions which seriously threaten the ability of our educational system to carry out its primary function.[2]

The report continues and presents survey findings which indicate that between 1970 and 1973, there were reported increases in the following categories:

	Percent
Homicides	18.5
Rapes and attempted rapes	40.1
Robberies	36.7
Assaults on students	85.3
Assaults on teachers	77.4
Burglaries of school buildings	11.8
Drug and alcohol offenses	37.5
Number of dropouts	11.7
Weapons violations	54.4

[1] Research for Better Schools, *Planning Assistance Programs to Reduce School Violence and Disruption* (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1972).

[2] *Our Nation's Schools—A Report Card: "A" in School Violence and Vandalism*, Preliminary Report of the Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975), p. 1.

73-367—76— 2

As if these figures were not startling enough, the report then quotes AFT President Albert Shanker as saying that no doubt thirty to sixty percent of all incidents are not reported by teachers who are too hassled or intimidated to do so.

Certainly a look at these and other published figures and findings would be cause for alarm for any concerned parent or citizen, not to mention students who have to attend schools five days a week. However, an examination of the methodology used to collect and tabulate the data upon which the findings are based raises serious questions about their validity and usefulness as a basis for the formulation and development of sound public policy. According to the Children's Defense Fund report,[3] telephone conversations between CDF staff and U.S. Senate Subcommittee staff members revealed that the percentage increases reported were apparently derived by simply totaling the number of reported incidents from 1970 and those from 1973, and calculating the percentage increase between these two figures. Moreover, when a school district failed to supply data for the year 1970 because it was unavailable or inaccessible, that district was counted in the total as if its true incidence had been zero for the unreported year. The incidence reported for 1973 would, of course, be interpreted as an increase, whether or not that was in fact the case. In addition, the increases cited in the report do not take into account the proportion of schools responding for each period, nor do they reflect what proportion of the incidents were committed by students enrolled in the school as opposed to intruders or outsiders. This latter consideration—whether the acts were committed by outsiders or students—is of crucial importance in terms of public policy. As the Children's Defense Fund report on suspensions points out: "Harsher school discipline policies . . . do not reach nonattending youth and adults."[4]

It is also important to note that of the 516 school districts responding to the questionnaire—a 68.1 percent response rate—only 296 submitted complete responses. Further, the sample is not representative of the whole range of American school districts since only the largest districts—over 10,000 students—were asked to respond to the survey. Finally, the actual numbers of incidents were not reported so that it is difficult to view the situation in perspective. An example of this latter point is illustrated in the reports of homicides. It is reported that homicides increased from 18.5 percent from 1970–1973 and Senator Bayh is reported as stating in his opening remarks that "The number of American students who died in the combat zones of our Nation's schools between 1970 and 1973 exceeds the number of American soldiers killed in combat throughout the first three years of the Vietnam conflict."[5] In fact, the number of deaths reported by the schools surveyed rose from eighty-five to one hundred during that three year period. Certainly any reasonable and sane person recognizes that one death is too many, but the actual figures are far fewer than the thousands implied by Senator Bayh's commentary.

Other studies conducted on the issue of school violence may also be misleading because of the lack of specificity concerning the nature and extent of violent incidents. In 1968–1969 the National Association of Secondary School Principals surveyed 670 school districts and requested information on disruptions which the Association defined as "any activity out of the ordinary."[6] Approximately 59 percent of the districts responding reported some activity out of the ordinary. Obviously, this definition could, and probably did, incorporate anything from a sit-in in a classroom, to a luncheon fight or a bombing.

Attempts to pinpoint the causes of disruption in the schools have unearthed widely divergent views. A survey of school disruption reported by Stephen K. Bailey in 1970[7] investigated teacher boycotts, student boycotts, arson, property damage, rioting, and student-teacher physical confrontations, among other incidents. Bailey found that while disruption rates were higher among integrated high schools than among predominantly black high schools, they were lowest of all among integrated high schools which also had integrated faculties. Bailey hypothesized that student disruptions are provoked by a "protest-prompting climate" which exists outside the schools themselves. Keniston proposed a similar hypothesis.[8] The New York State Temporary Commission to Study the Causes

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[3] Children's Defense Fund, *School Suspensions: Are They Helping Children?* (Washington Research Project, Inc., 1975), pp. 139–141.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 241.
[5] Senator Bayh's opening statement at the Subcommittee hearings, April 16, 1975.
[6] "Student Activism and Conflict," *NASSP Bulletin*, 55 (January 1971), p. 70.
[7] Stephen K. Bailey, *Disruption in Urban Public Secondary Schools* (Washington: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970).
[8] Kenneth Keniston, *Young Radicals* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1968).

of Student Unrest stated in its 1971 report entitled *Anarchy in the Academy*, that student disruption was encouraged by teacher strikes and boycotts.

Education U.S.A., in a special report on "the discipline crisis in the schools"[9] cited reasons for student violence ranging from teacher insensitivity, inconsistent discipline, strikes, school size, permissive parents, lack of respect for authority, youth alienation and an increase in compulsory attendance age. New York University professor Irving Kristol was quoted as saying the breakdown of discipline in ghetto schools is due to the increase in compulsory attendance age and in the minimum wage:

> Together, these reforms insured that a great many vigorous and robust young men and women, with no academic aptitude or interests, were sentenced to confinement in the schools . . . The results are not very different from dropping a gang of juveniles in a children's playpen. They proceed to wreck the place and make everyone miserable . . .[10]

Professor Kristol is not alone in claiming that "ghetto" youth have a greater propensity for perpetrating violence in the schools than their "non-ghetto" counterparts. Numerous sociological theories have emerged which state that due to restricted opportunities and frustrations,[11] subcultural differences in values[12] or in attitudes toward violence,[13] members of lower socioeconomic groups are responsible for higher levels of criminal incidents in certain areas, including schools. It should be noted however, that almost all recent studies on violence in the schools agree that such incidents are not isolated in or confined to low-income schools, and that a significant and increasing number of serious incidents occur across all socioeconomic strata in school districts.

A few reports have attempted to determine what schools can do and are doing about the incidence of violence and vandalism. McPartland and McDill's study on crime in the schools[14] found that school responsiveness can and does affect the number of student offenses in schools. They found that negative school responses as reflected in low marks correlate with a high incidence of student offenses; that school size correlates significantly with student offenses, and that student access (as determined by degree of student participation in school government and the amount of student choice in educational activities) relates to the number and types of offenses committed. And while this study examined only a few indices in the area of school response to student discipline, it does indicate that school personnel have some measure of control over safety in their schools and that certain reforms could be helpful in improving school responsiveness.

The Children's Defense Fund has recently published two studies which deal with the issue of school response to student discipline.[15] These studies found that "while violence in the schools is feared by many school personnel, parents, and children, the stereotype image of hordes of incorrigible children wreaking havoc on entire schools is not borne out by the findings."[16] The reports also decry the use of exclusion through suspension or expulsion as a punishment for all sorts of "offenses" ranging from refusal to agree to a special education placement to refusal to take medicinal sedatives. The Children's Defense Fund also found in their surveys that most suspensions (63.4 percent) were for non-violent, non-dangerous offenses. Such offenses include truancy or missing classes (25.5 percent), "behavior problems" other than fighting (13.6 percent), verbal argu-

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[9] Education U.S.A. Special Report, *Discipline Crisis in Schools: The Problem, Causes and Search for Solutions* (Arlington, Va.: National School Public Relations Association, 1973), pp. 4–8.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

[11] See Richard A. Cloward and Lloyd E. Ohlin, *Delinquency and Opportunity* (New York: Free Press, 1960); Arthur L. Stinchcombe, *Rebellion in a High School* (Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1964); Kenneth Polk and Walter E. Schafer, *Schools and Delinquency* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1972).

[12] See, for example, Walter B. Miller, "Lower Class Culture as a Generating Milieu of Gang Delinquency," Journal of Social Issues, 14 (1958) pp. 5–19; Leon F. Fannin and Marshall B. Clinard "Differences in the Conception of Self as a Male among Lower and Middle Class Delinquents," *Social Problems*, 13 (1965), pp. 205–214.

[13] See Marvin E. Wolfgang, "Urban Crime," in James Q. Wilson, ed. *The Metropolitan Enigma* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1968); ———— *Crime in America* (Itasca, Ill.: Peacock Publishers, 1970); ———— "Crime in a Birth Cohort," in Sheldon L. Messinger, ed. *The Aldine Crime and Justice Annual* (Chicago: Aldine, 1973).

[14] James M. McPartland and Edward L. McDill, *Research on Crime in the Schools* (Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 1975).

[15] Children's Defense Fund, *op. cit.*, also *Children Out of School In America* (Washington Research Project, Inc., 1974).

[16] *Ibid.*, Children Out of School, p. 117.

ments (8.5 percent), and other reasons such as smoking, use of drugs, dress code violations, etc. (16.8 percent).

The Children's Defense Fund studies also found that minority students are disproportionately suspended at a rate about twice as high as that for non-minority students.[17] In Canton, Mississippi, a local parent showed a Children's Defense Fund monitor a leaflet entitled "White Citizens for EBRP Schools Only." The leaflet included "an oath for white teachers and principals which set the goals of 240 suspensions per month of black students and suspensions of 15 black boys and 10 black girls who were seniors—so they would not graduate."[18] Although the existence of discriminatory exclusions of students is known to the Department of HEW through the reports the department collects, no school district has yet been denied federal funds because of discrimination in school discipline even after a finding of discrimination has been made.

Although the Children's Defense Fund studies are probably the most comprehensive to date concerning the issue of student discipline and exclusion from school, there are admittedly some problems with the data they used for analysis. The Office of Civil Rights data on suspensions is often inaccurate due to underestimates by school officials, lack of information, inconsistent definitions of suspensions and explusions, and the fact that many types of exclusions are not reported. Children's Defense Fund's own survey which produced another data base was concentrated in the South—(more than one-half of the states involved were Southern)—and tended to underemphasize urban areas. Although their conclusions may be generalizable, further research on this subject clearly needs to be done.

RATIONALE FOR STUDY

Because of the concerns expressed by educators, parents, students and others, public officials, including the U.S. Congress, have taken an increasing interest in the problem of violence and vandalism in the schools of the country. Research studies have been commissioned, testimony solicited, hearings convened and data analyzed by commissions, committees and individuals. One can reasonably assume that this flurry of activity, particularly by public officials, is designed to lead to the development of public policy designed to mitigate what most will agree is a major and growing problem.

If the development of public policy is a goal, however, most citizens would hope the result would be an informed and rational public policy. To act on an emotional basis, to react to crisis in a climate of hysteria could, and probably would, result in actions which might very well exacerbate rather than mitigate the problem. We therefore concluded that some effort needs to be made to get behind the conflicting explanations, differential analyses of disparate data bases and to systematically look, not at macro data, but at micro data. In other words, looking at the situation in specific school systems in different cities across the country to see if there were discernible differences between and among the systems and schools seemed to offer an opportunity to provide additional information about a serious problem.

METHODOLOGY

It was decided very early in this effort to employ a somewhat different approach. It was clearly necessary to gather statistical data on the incidence, nature and severity of violence, vandalism and disruptive activity. This was accomplished through a survey instrument, a copy of which is included in the appendix. In gathering these data, however, an attempt was made to ask the questions in a way which would be understandable and acceptable to educational personnel in the school districts. The questionnaire gave school personnel the opportunity to define their terms, to report their data, and, in addition, to explain what was meant by their figures. We were guided in this approach by some years of experience in school systems and also by conversations with superintendents, school district research personnel, teachers and students. During these conversations, the complaint was often expressed that many research studies on violence and vandalism did not deal with the reality behind the data.

Recognizing that survey data was not only insufficient, but might also be misleading and incomplete, the decision was made to visit the different cities

[17] See also *Student PushOuts* (American Friends Service Committee, 1975).
[18] Children's Defense Fund, *Children Out of School*, p. 133.

and school systems, to interview and enter into a continuing dialogue with superintendents, central office personnel, security personnel, teachers and counselors, principals and others who are involved with the problem on a daily basis. In order to provide additional information, visits to schools, alternative programs, special centers, special schools and other sites for educational programs were made in each city visited. In addition to these visits, we reviewed a variety of documents published or maintained by the local school districts, individual schools, counselors, directors, advisory groups of parents, citizens and reports by various non-school agencies.

In selecting the cities and school systems, we were influenced by the need to have access to accurate data, by the willingness of certain school superintendents to participate in the study, by the need to select systems which represented diversity in size, racial composition, geographical location and complexity. We were also limited by time, and financial resources. The result has been a limited study of fifteen school systems which provides important information about the differences and similarities between these systems and others, all of which experience to one degree or another the problems and complexities of school violence and vandalism, student suspensions and explusions and the need to deal with these problems and complexities on a daily basis.

Recognizing our inability to deal with every element of the problem, we chose to concentrate on the following areas:

The number and kind of assaults in schools.
The extent and nature of criminal incidents.
The costs of vandalism.
The type and size of security personnel and equipment.
The incidence and causes of suspensions and explusions.
Alternatives to suspensions and explusions.
Local perceptions of remedies for these problems.

PROFILE OF CITIES SURVEYED

There were fifteen cities included in the survey (see table 3). They ranged in size from systems with pupil enrollment of under 10,000 to over 600,000. All of the school districts have more than fifty percent minority students. In four of these districts (Dade County, Miami, Florida; Oakland, California; Berkeley, California; and Los Angeles, California) the minority population includes significant number of Asian-Americans and Latinos as well as Blacks. Cities from the far West, Midwest, Northwest, and South were represented in the survey.

TABLE 3.—SCHOOL POPULATIONS OF DISTRICTS SURVEYED

City	School population	Percent minority
Atlanta	90,000	82.5
Baltimore	182,911	70.4
Berkeley	14,000	74.0
Camden	20,000	78.0
Detroit	265,578	71.5
East Orange	11,870	95.5
Gary	43,312	79.9
Los Angeles	607,153	59.9
Miami (Dade County)	244,354	53.8
New Orleans	99,543	77.2
Oakland	56,911	71.9
Philadelphia	267,918	65.9
Plainfield	9,500	78.0
St. Louis	97,500	70.0
Wilmington	15,000	88.0

CHAPTER II—PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

OVERVIEW OF ASSAULT DATA

While the percentage of assaults appears to have increased over the past five years in many of the school districts surveyed, almost all superintendents and security directors interviewed commented that improved reporting procedures account for a sizeable portion of the apparent increase. No school district showed

a consistent upward trend in proportion of assaults; instead year to year fluctuations are indicated by the data. Some systems, such as Gary and Berkeley, have experienced a substantial decrease in the number of student and teacher assaults over the past few years.

The category of assaults on teachers includes a wide range of offenses. In one city, an example of a reported assault was the case of an elementary school child who kicked over a chair which struck a teacher while the child was having a temper tantrum. In another city, a vice-principal was shot by one of the students in his school. Both of these incidents are classified as assaults. Assaults on students are generally fights between students, although more violent attacks on students are also included in this category.

Comparability among districts is difficult due to variations in reporting procedures. The data reported for Detroit indicates the number of suspensions occasioned by assaults rather than the total number of incidents of assaults. The figures of Los Angeles include assaults on security agents as well as teaching personnel. The data for Baltimore represented in figures 1 through 4 indicate simple assaults only; aggravated assaults were reported for total school personnel rather than for students and teachers separately. The total rate of assaults is represented in figures 5 and 6.

The average rate of assaults on students in 1974–1975 for the cities surveyed was 21.28 for every 10,000 students enrolled. The average rate of teacher assaults for the same year was 4.78 per 10,000 students. This means that over the course of the year, less than one-half of 1 percent of the students and teachers in these cities were subjected to assault attempts (.21 percent and .05 percent, respectively).

The percentage of these assaults committed by outsiders (non-students) has been estimated by school district personnel to range as high as 76 percent (see Table 4). The extent of the problem created by intruders varies from district to district, but most superintendents felt it to be an area of considerable concern.

FIGURE 1
RATES OF STUDENT ASSAULT
(1974-1975)

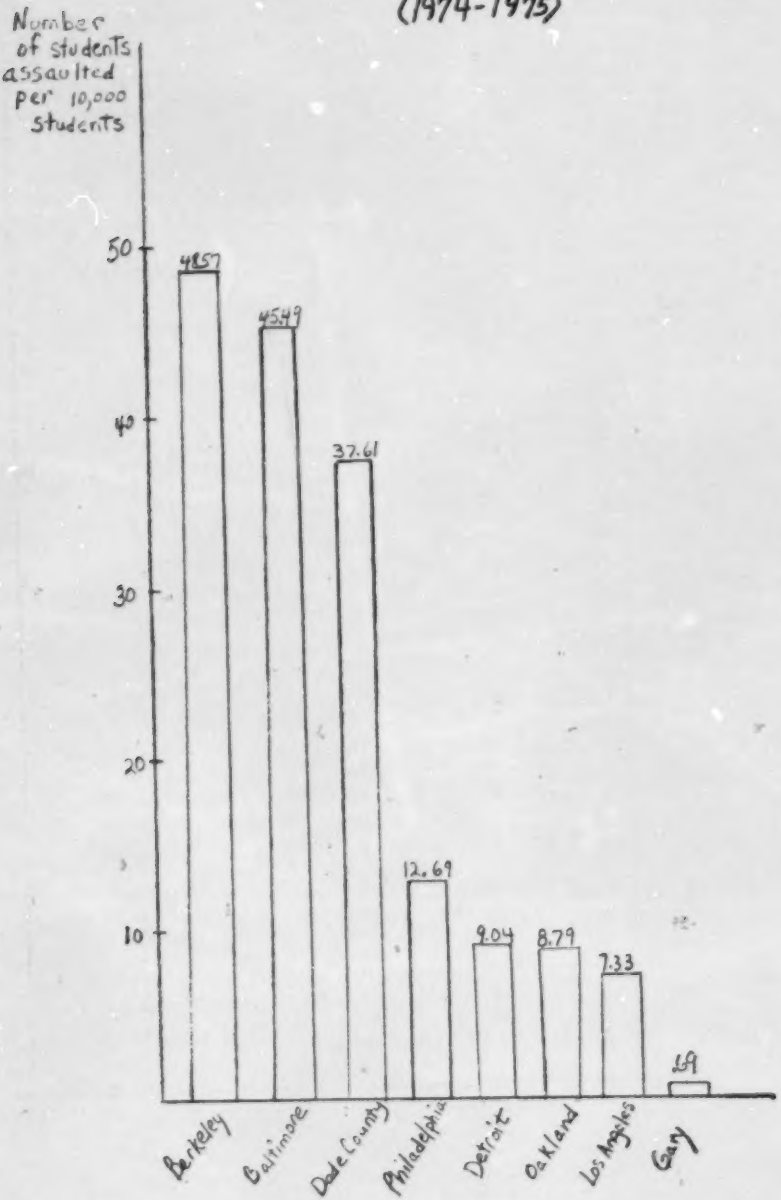

FIGURE 2
TRENDS IN STUDENT ASSAULTS

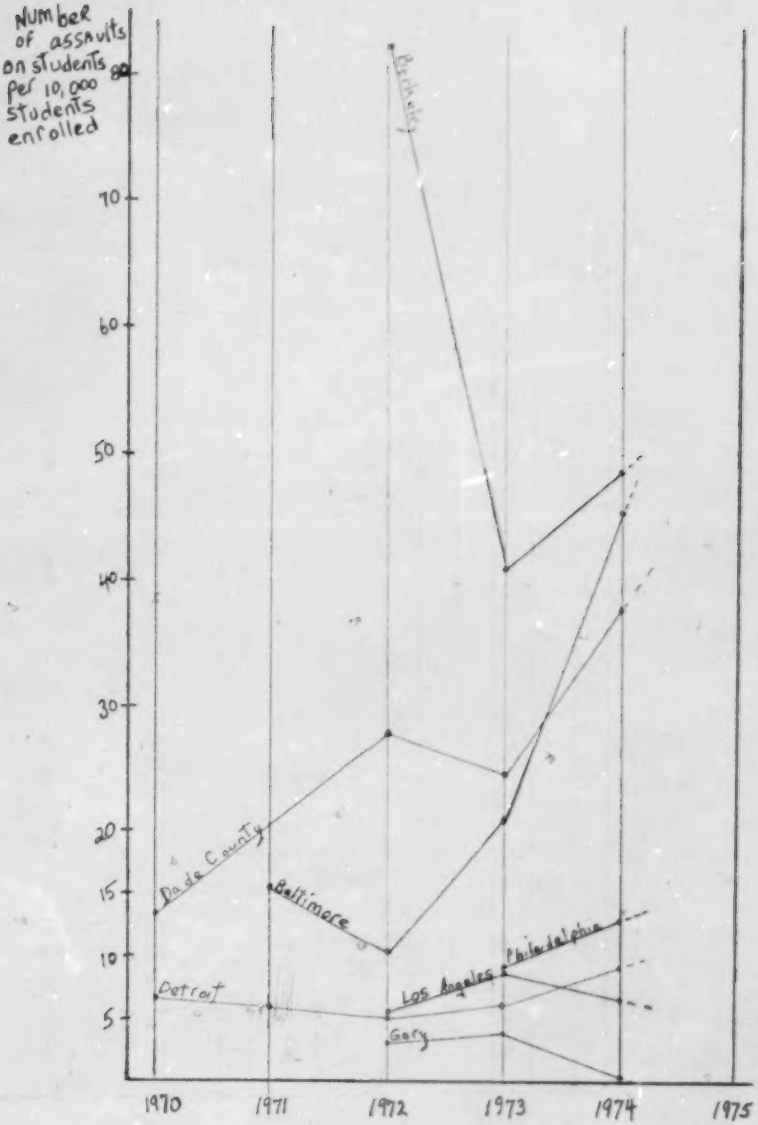

FIGURE 3

RATES OF TEACHER ASSAULTS
(1974-1975)

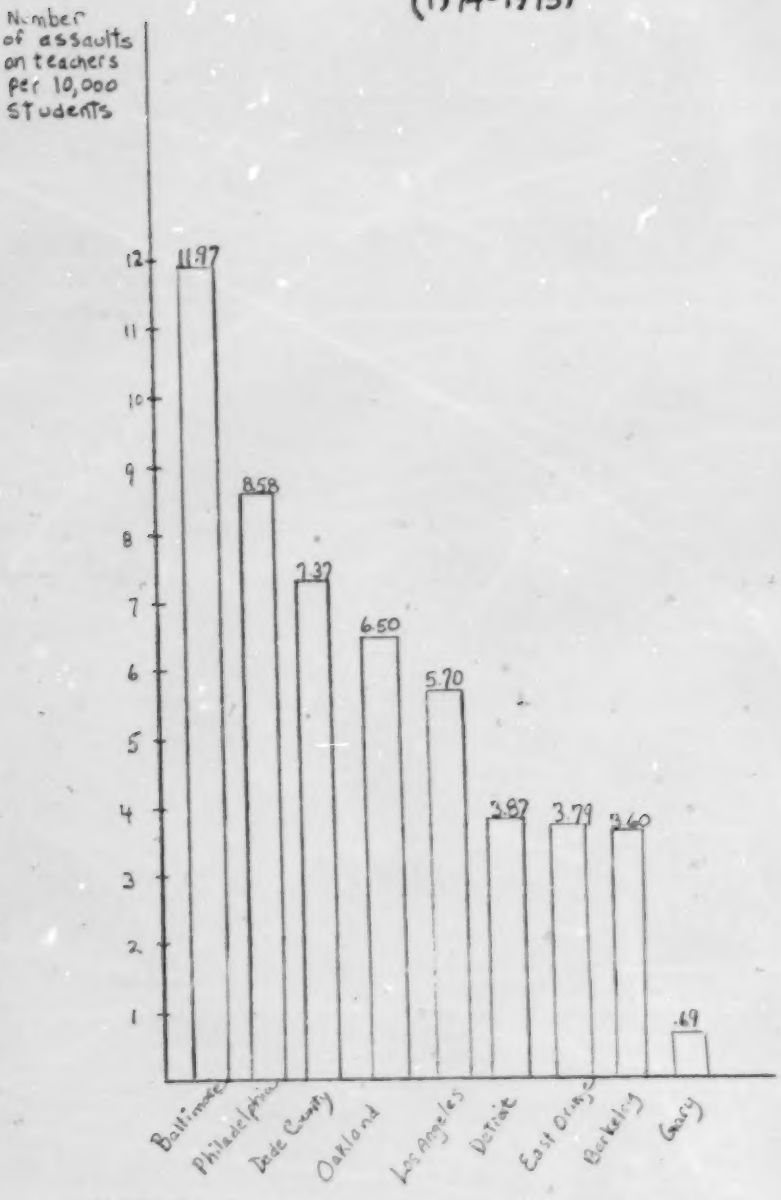

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FIGURE 4

TRENDS IN TEACHER ASSAULTS

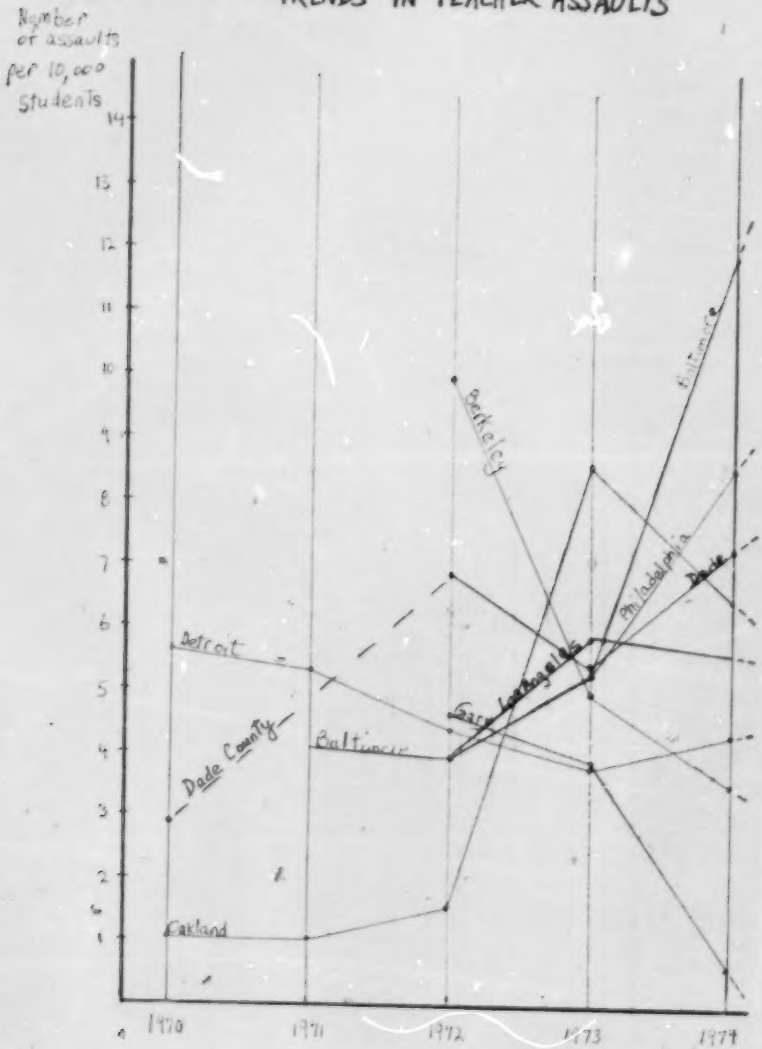


FIGURE 5

RATES OF ASSAULT
(1974-1975)

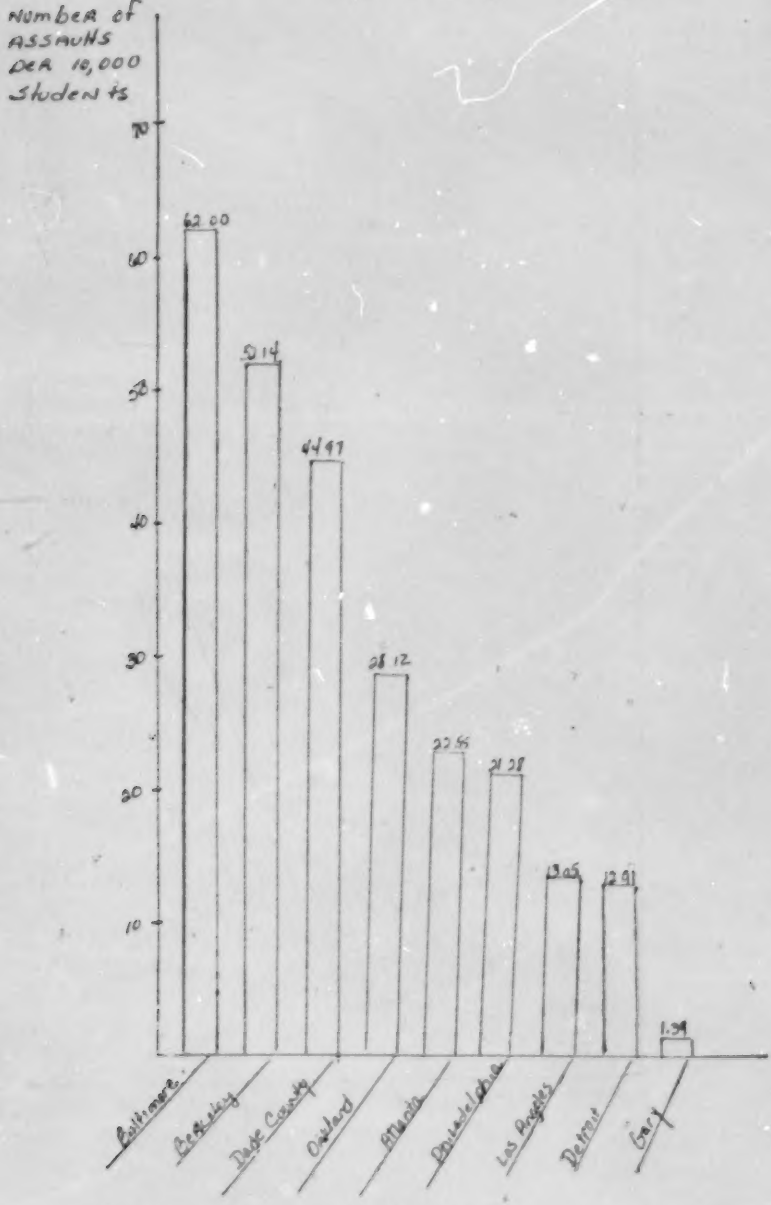


FIGURE 6
TRENDS IN ASSAULTS
(OF ALL KINDS)

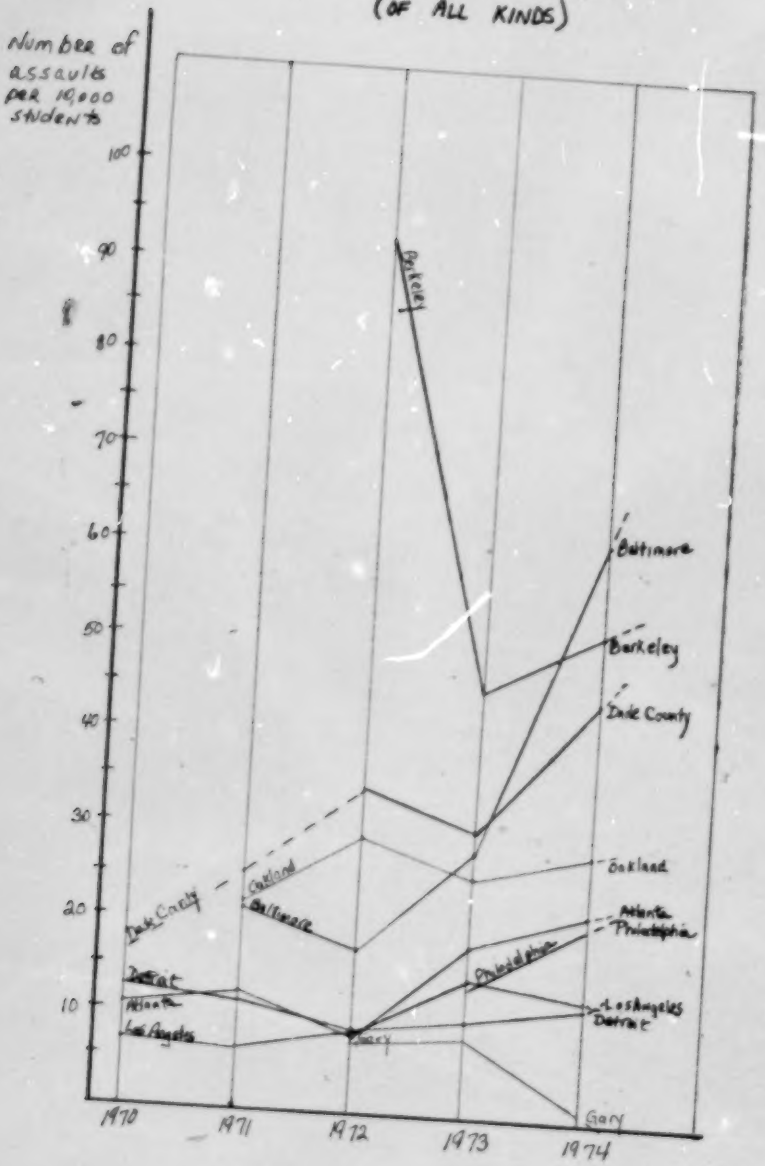


TABLE 4.—PERCENT OF ASSAULTS COMMITTED BY OUTSIDERS (NONSTUDENTS)

City	Percent of assaults on teachers	Percent of assaults on students
Atlanta	(1)	(1)
Baltimore	(1)	(1)
Berkeley	(1)	(1)
Dade County	20	12
Detroit	16	16
Gary	5	0
Los Angeles	(2)	(2)
Oakland	35	25
Philadelphia	15	40
St. Louis	76	(3)
Wilmington	1	(2)

[1] Not available.
[2] Less than 10 percent.
[3] More than 50 percent.
[4] Between 2 and 50 percent.

Note: These figures represent the best approximations of school district personnel based on the data available to them.

OVERVIEW OF CRIMINAL INCIDENTS

For the cities where a breakdown of figures is available for the past five years, it appears that incidents of burglary are the most frequent criminal incidents. A chart—"Rates of Criminal Incidents: 1974–1975"—is included in the Appendix. Crimes against property (burglary, larceny, vandalism, trespass and arson) outnumber crimes against people (robbery, assault, sex offenses, homicides) more than 2 to 1 overall (See Figure 7).

Because of differing classifications and changes in classification of criminal incidents, it is difficult to trace trends within or across cities. Weapons violations, however, appear to be on the increase in most cities with the single exception of Oakland, where they have been decreasing over the years (See Figure 8). Drug violations (including alcohol abuse) also appear to be generally increasing. Again, Oakland is an exception (See Figure 9).

A rather surprising finding for these cities is that, although there are fluctuations in the incidence of vandalism, the overall trend in the six cities for which long-term data are available is down (See Figure 10).

FIGURE 7
RATES OF
CRIMINAL INCIDENTS
(CRIMES AGAINST PEOPLE AND
PROPERTY: 1974–1975)

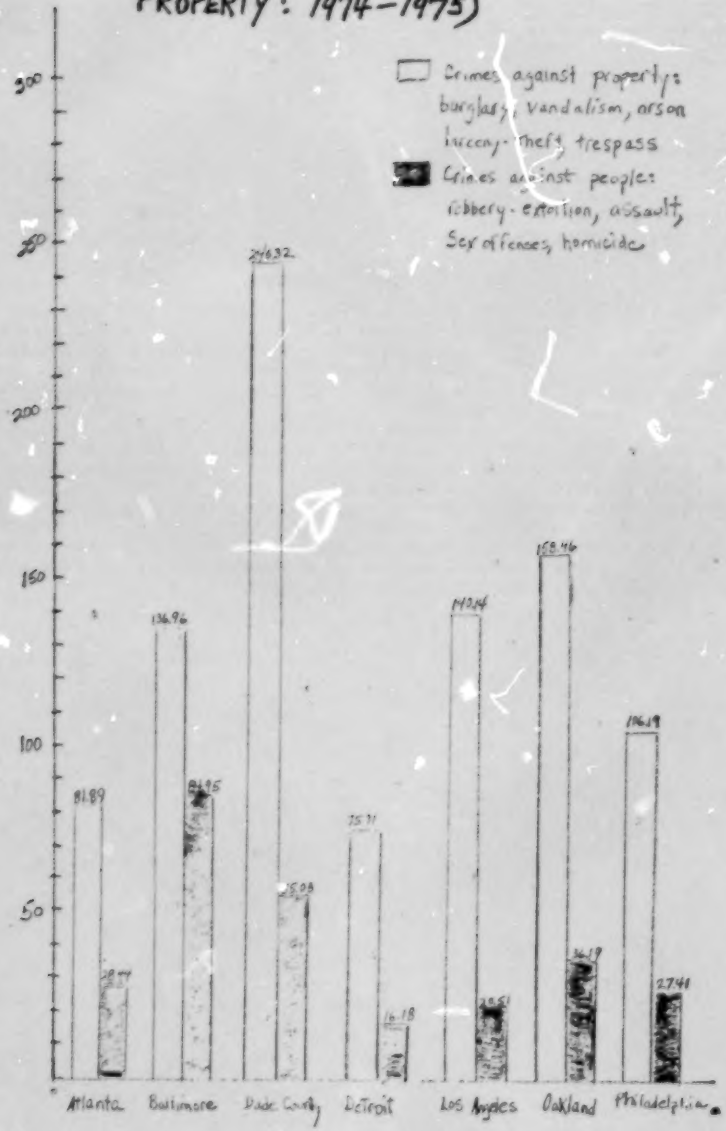


FIGURE 8
WEAPONS VIOLATIONS

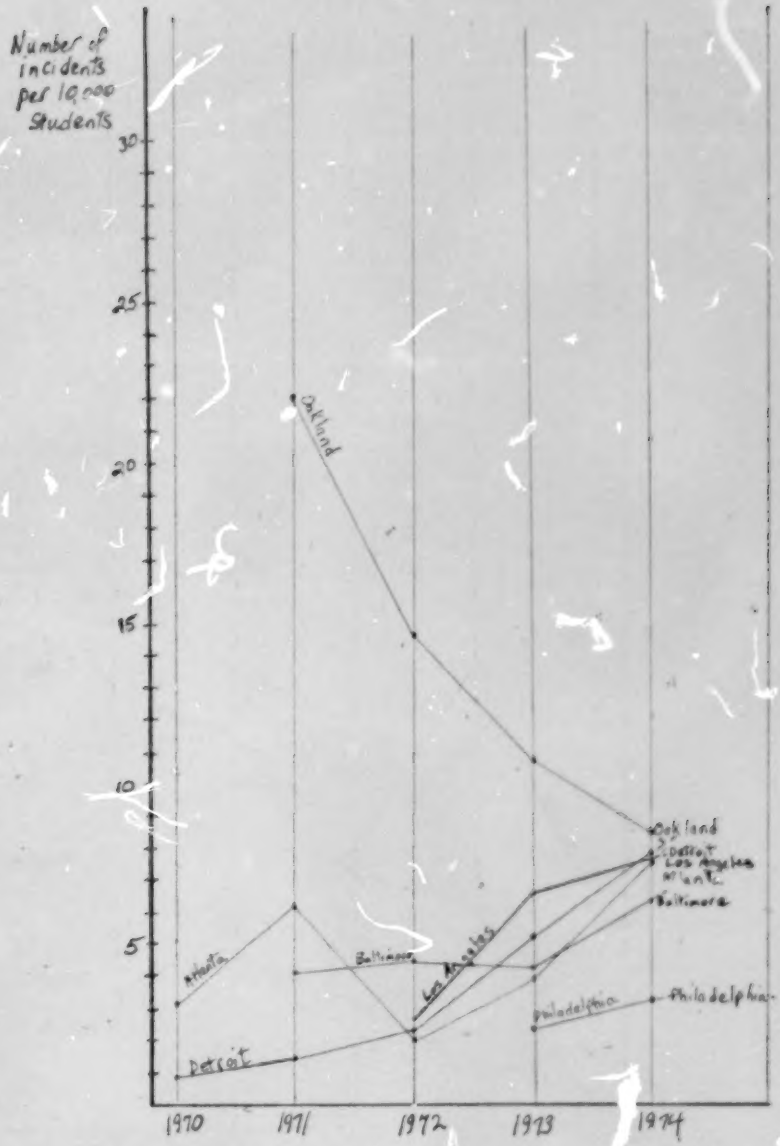


FIGURE 9

DRUG VIOLATIONS

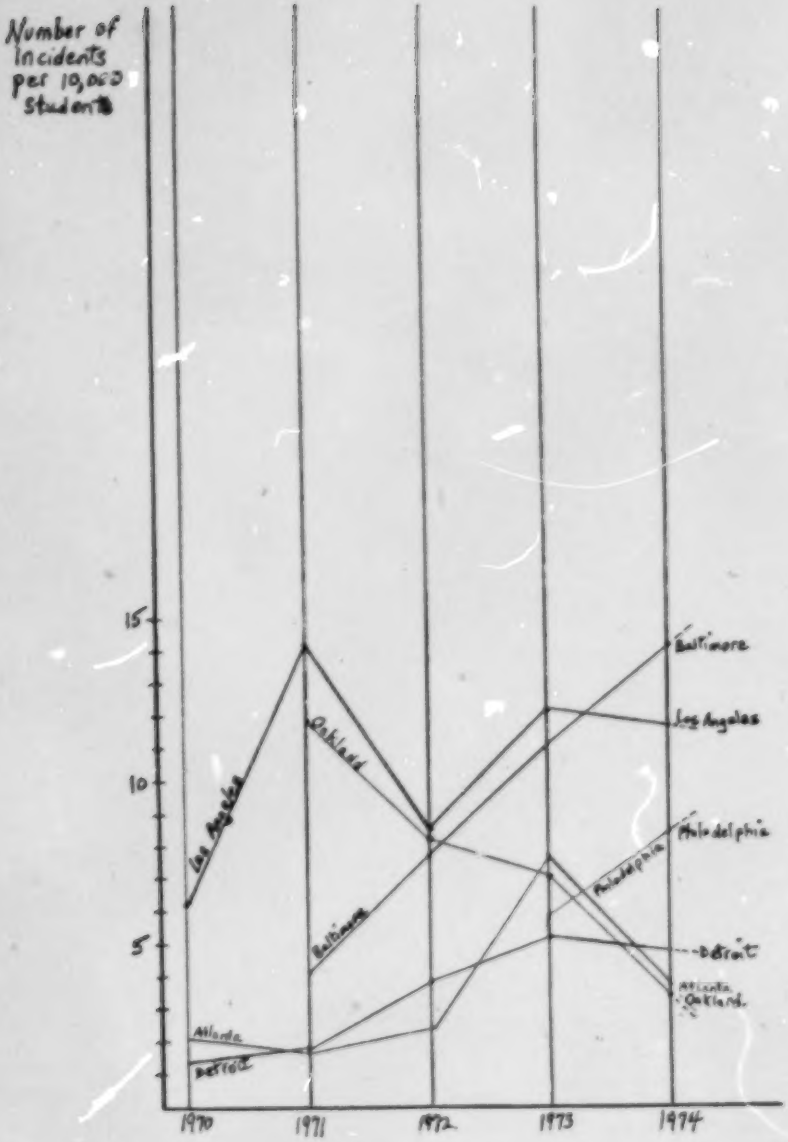
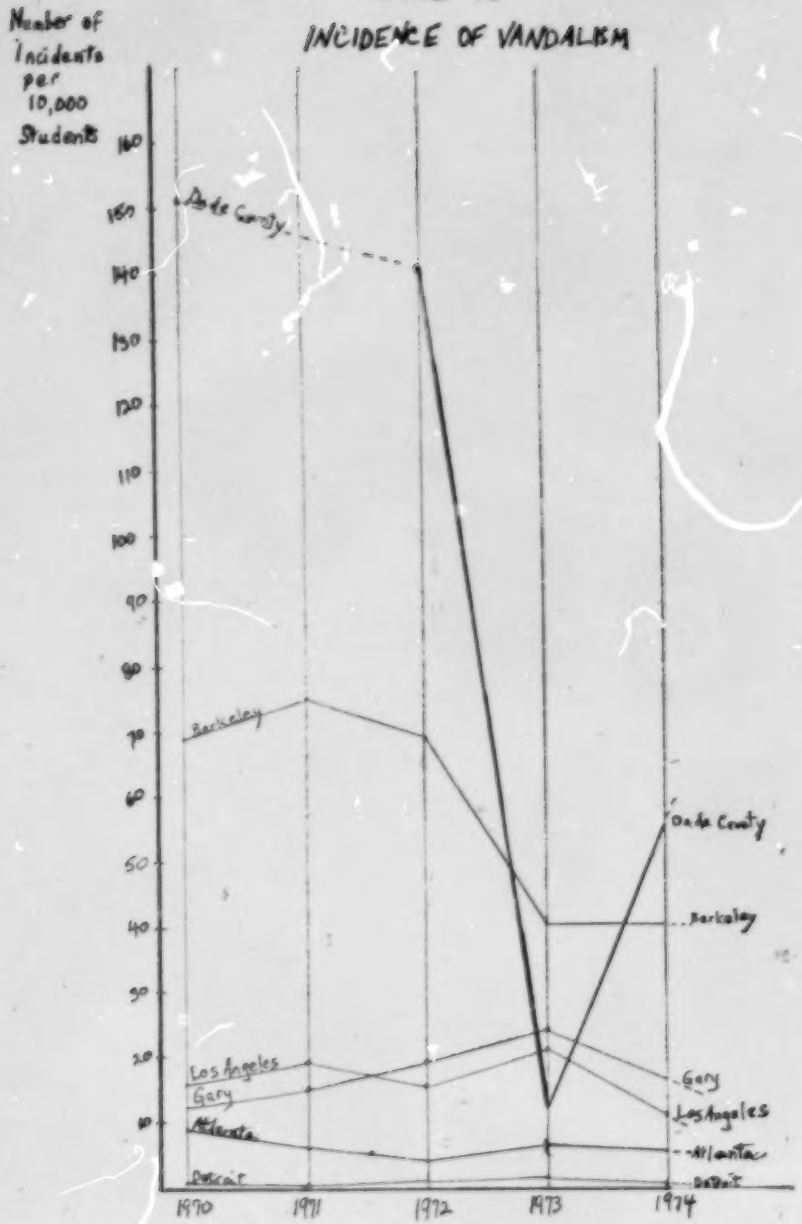


FIGURE 10

INCIDENCE OF VANDALISM



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Records of vandalism costs provide a good illustration of the inability or failure of school systems to gather long term data in certain areas. Among the difficulties encountered in estimating costs of vandalism are the inabilities to determine which repairs are necessitated by destructive acts, whether labor costs are included, the difference between replacement costs versus original costs, and a lack of consistent and precise reporting procedures.

As illustrated by Table 5, long term data are frequently unavailable and comparability among districts is difficult due to varying classifications of vandalism.

TABLE 5.—COSTS OF VANDALISM

City	1970–71	1971–72	1972–73	1973–74	1974–75
Atlanta	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	125,000
Baltimore	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	808,668
Berkeley	20,080	33,902	160,324	117,414	[2] 128,462
Camden	(1)	(1)	(1)	90,000	90,000
Cleveland	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Dade County	113,245	181,573	179,908	(1)	351,785
Detroit	815,556	925,046	737,620	758,321	1,017,120
East Orange	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	70,000
Gary	(1)	(1)	(1)	19,249	6,255
Los Angeles	1,110,873	991,081	856,061	2,818,246	[3] 3,036,438
New Orleans	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	[4] 400,000
Oakland	167,102	210,799	195,618	211,455	383,994
Philadelphia	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
St. Louis	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Wilmington	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] These figures were not available.
[2] Not including labor costs.
[3] Approximately $250,000 per year.
[4] Excluding arson.
[5] Approximately $2,000,000 to $3,000,000 per year including robbery.
[6] $1,295,000 total over the last 4 yr.
[7] Approximately $50,000 per year.

OVERVIEW OF SECURITY PERSONNEL AND EQUIPMENT

The number and type of security personnel varies widely from city to city (see Table 6). Some of these officers are armed, others are not. Some wear uniforms, others do not. The basic equipment used for security purposes is alarm systems, and screening devices of various kinds.

Analysis of members of security personnel and various categories of criminal incidents show no significant correlation between size of security force and numbers of incidents. We did, however, find that the type of security force—at least in two cities—had a direct effect in reducing the incidence in certain categories of criminal behavior. Atlanta, for example, has only eighteen security personnel including supervisors. Yet, the incidence of school violence and vandalism is among the lowest of the cities surveyed. A similar situation prevails in Baltimore.

TABLE 6.—SECURITY FORCES

City	Number of personnel	Type of equipment
Atlanta	18	Intrusion alarm system.
Baltimore	136	
Berkeley	13	
Camden	28	Alarm, system, screening devices.
Dade County	68	Alarm system.
Detroit	46 plus 179 security interns	
East Orange	1 director and 16 corridor aides	None.
Gary	43 police and 76 supervisory aides	
Los Angeles	300 peace officers	Intrusion alarm system.
Oakland	10	
Philadelphia	133 security officers and 6 supervisors	Intrusion alarm system.
Plainfield	16 security guards	Alarm system.
St. Louis	95 guards	
Wilmington	21 hall monitors	Do.

When the size of each district is taken into account, it is possible to gauge the rate of suspensions among districts. This kind of analysis shows the highest rates of suspension occurring in Philadelphia, East Orange and Plainfield. The lowest rates of suspension were found in Atlanta, Detroit, Baltimore and Berkeley (see figure 11).

The most frequent reasons for suspensions are fighting among students, truancy, and "gross misbehavior" (see Table 7). A large percentage of suspensions (about ¼ to ⅓ in most cities) fall into categories where teacher judgment is the primary determinant of suspension (see Table 8).

TABLE 7.—MOST FREQUENT REASONS FOR SUSPENSION

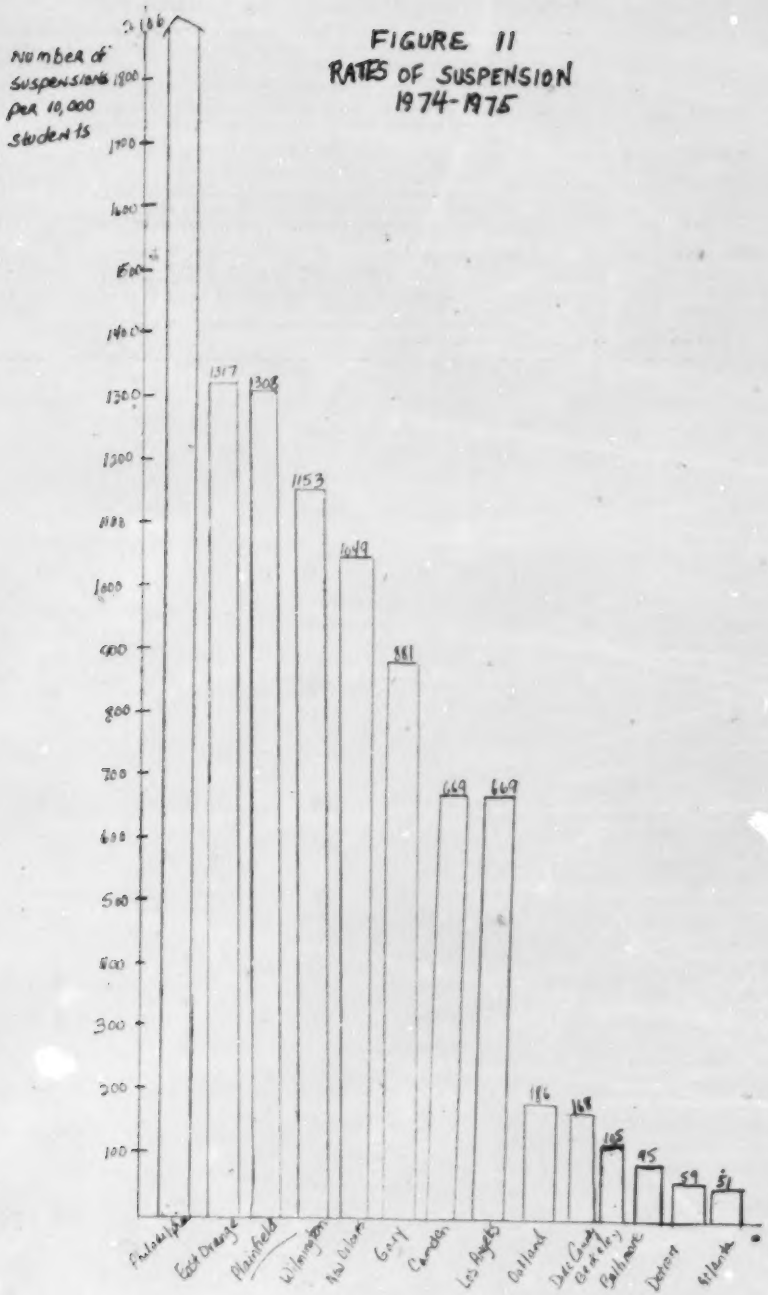
City	1st reason	Percent	2d reason	Percent	3d reason	Percent	4th reason	Percent
Atlanta	Fighting and or disruptive behavior.	NA	Disrespect	NA	Abusive language	NA	Truancy	NA
Baltimore	Aggressive behavior toward school staff.	NA	Fighting	NA	Assault on staff	NA	Unexcused absence	NA
Berkeley	Fighting	25	Misconduct	15	Smoking	12	Gambling	NA
Camden	Continued and willful disobedience and fighting.		do		do		do	99
Dade County	Disruptive behavior	25	Fighting	18	Staff assault	3	Mood modifier	2
Detroit	Gross misbehavior	25	do	15	Weapons violations	13	Class cutting	11
Gary	Fighting	NA	Truancy	NA	Misbehavior	NA	Insubordination	NA
Los Angeles	do	24	Smoking	12	Disobedience	12	Defiance	10
New Orleans	do	23	Truancy or cutting	19	Disrespect	10	Attention-getting behavior	6
Oakland	do	31	Cutting class	12	Behavior	11	Smoking	7
St. Louis	Gross misconduct	78	Fighting	17	Vandalism	2	Illegal entry	1

NA represents information that was not available.

TABLE 8.—SUSPENSIONS BASED ON JUDGMENTAL CRITERIA

City	Discretionary suspension categories	Percent of all suspensions
Baltimore	Aggressive behavior toward school staff; unable to adjust; verbally assaulting school staff; danger to self or others; inciting to riot.	36
Berkeley	Abusing school personnel; class disruption; defiance; disobedience; misconduct.	33
Dade County	Disruptive behavior	25
Detroit	Emotional instability; gross misbehavior (disobedience, insolence, insubordination); immoral behavior; threatening teachers.	29
Los Angeles	Disobedience, defiance, misbehavior, hazing, misconduct, uncleanliness (appearance).	30
New Orleans	Withdrawn behavior (does not interact with peers or teachers); disrespect of superiors; attention-getting behavior in class; academically behind (unable to do classroom work); threatening behavior; lack of interest; failure of parent to attend conference.	22
Oakland	Misbehavior; defiance; disobedience; disrespect; loitering	26
St. Louis (elementary only)	Gross misconduct	78

FIGURE 11
RATES OF SUSPENSION
1974-1975



There does not appear to be any national trend in terms of numbers of suspensions and expulsions over the last five years. Rather trends are localized and can be traced in some cases to specific policies (or lack thereof). Suspensions and expulsions decreased in Dade County over the last five years, and to a lesser extent in Oakland. There were no expulsions in either of these districts in the 1974–1975 school year (see Figure 14). It would also appear that the number of suspensions has been decreasing in New Orleans according to 1973–1975 data.

A steady increase in suspensions and expulsions has occurred over the last five years in Baltimore and Los Angeles. In Detroit, while suspensions appear to be more frequent, expulsions seem to be diminishing. Other districts surveyed seem to have fluctuated from year to year (see figure 12 through 16). In every case we have shown raw data for aggregate numbers of suspensions and expulsions (see Appendices E and F). We have also included, however, numbers per 10,000 students which indicate the proportionate incidence of suspensions and expulsions in each district. It is interesting to note that these types of statistics were not available in several districts for the entire five-year span, and other districts, while able to collect the information, did not have it readily available. In addition, definitions of suspension and expulsion vary from district to district (see Appendix G).

FIGURE 12

SUSPENSION TRENDS

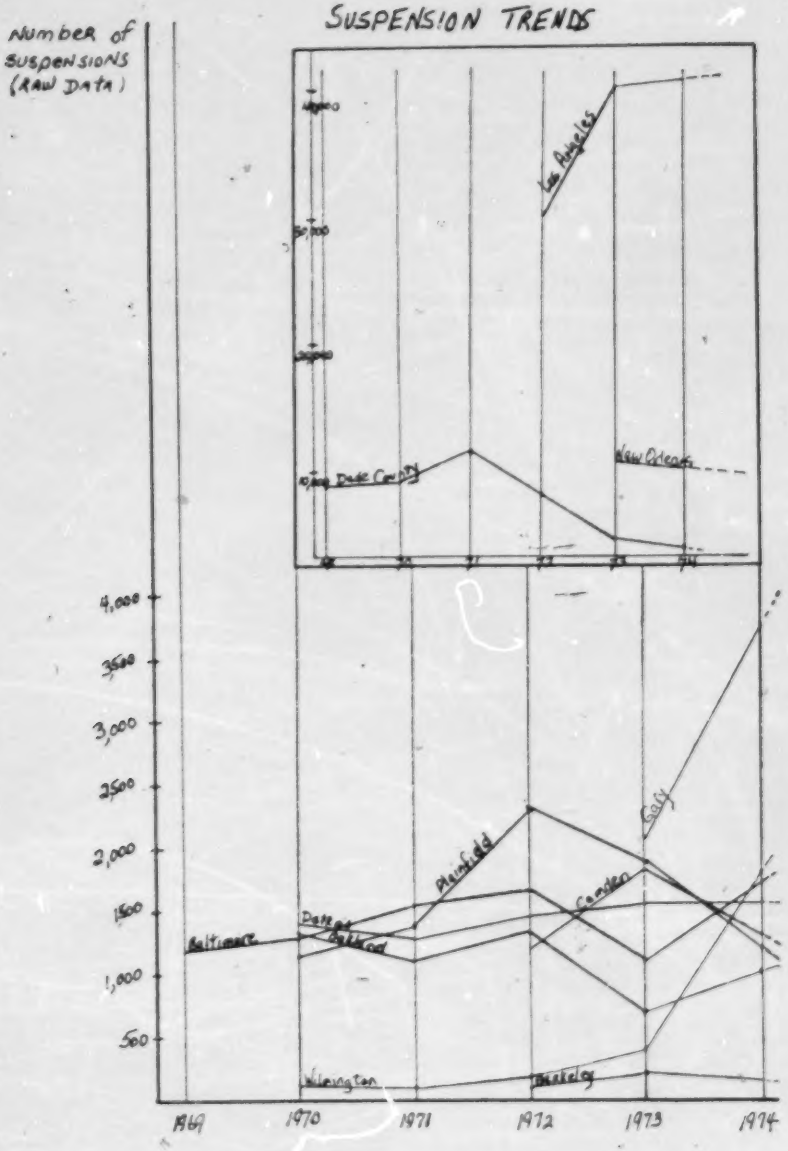


FIGURE 13
TRENDS in SUSPENSIONS

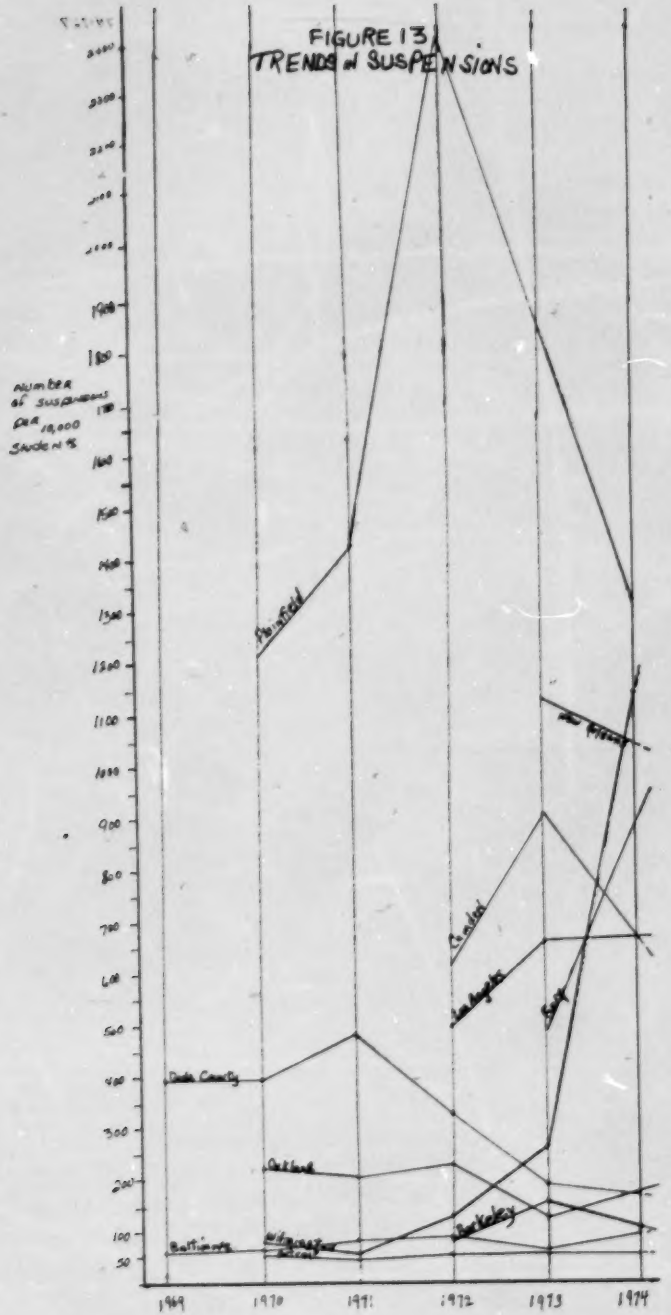


FIGURE 14
RATES OF EXPULSION
(1974-1975)

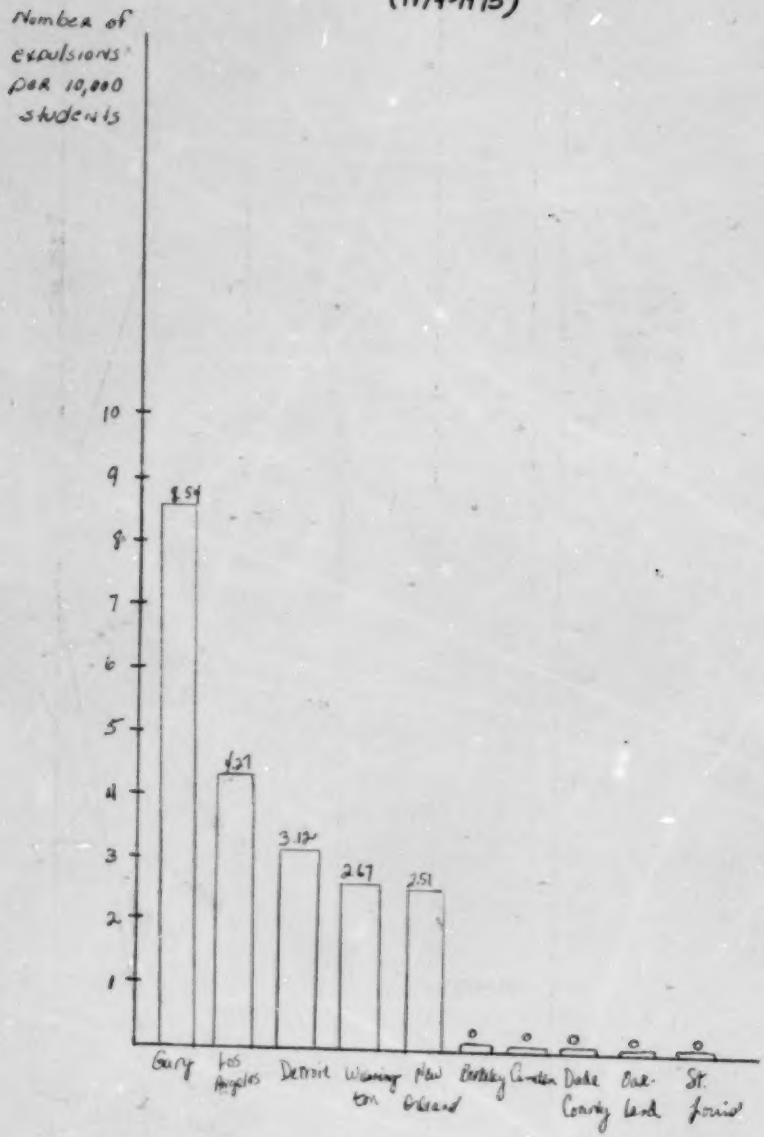


FIGURE 15
EXPULSION TRENDS

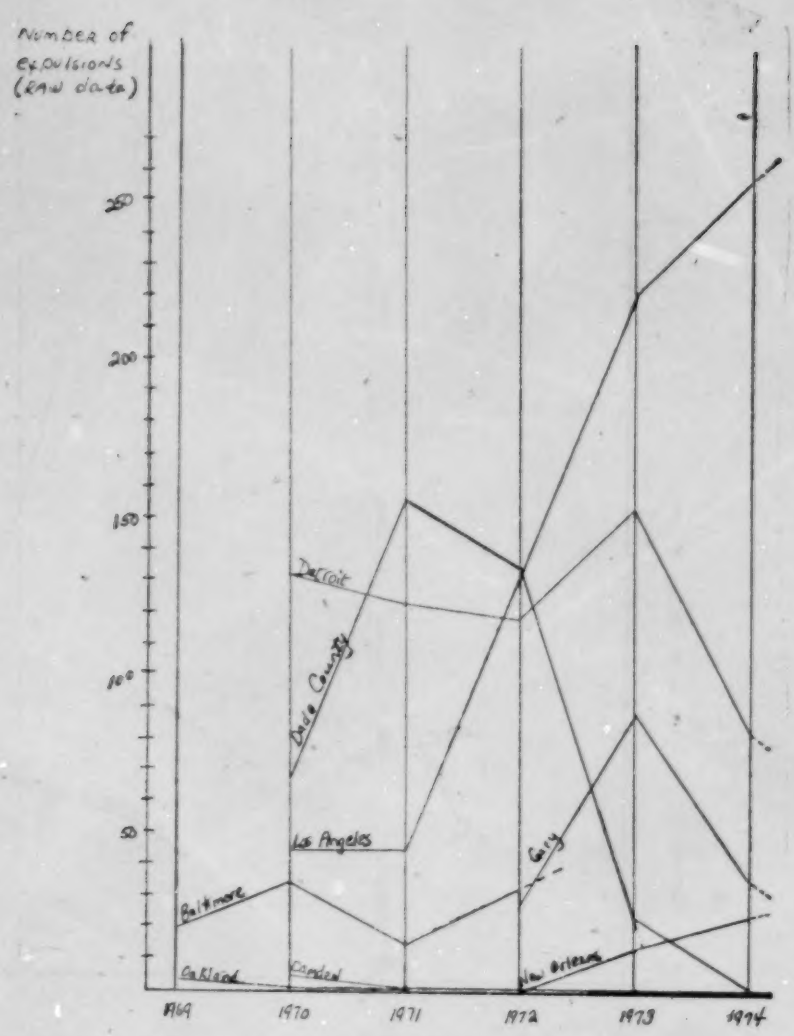
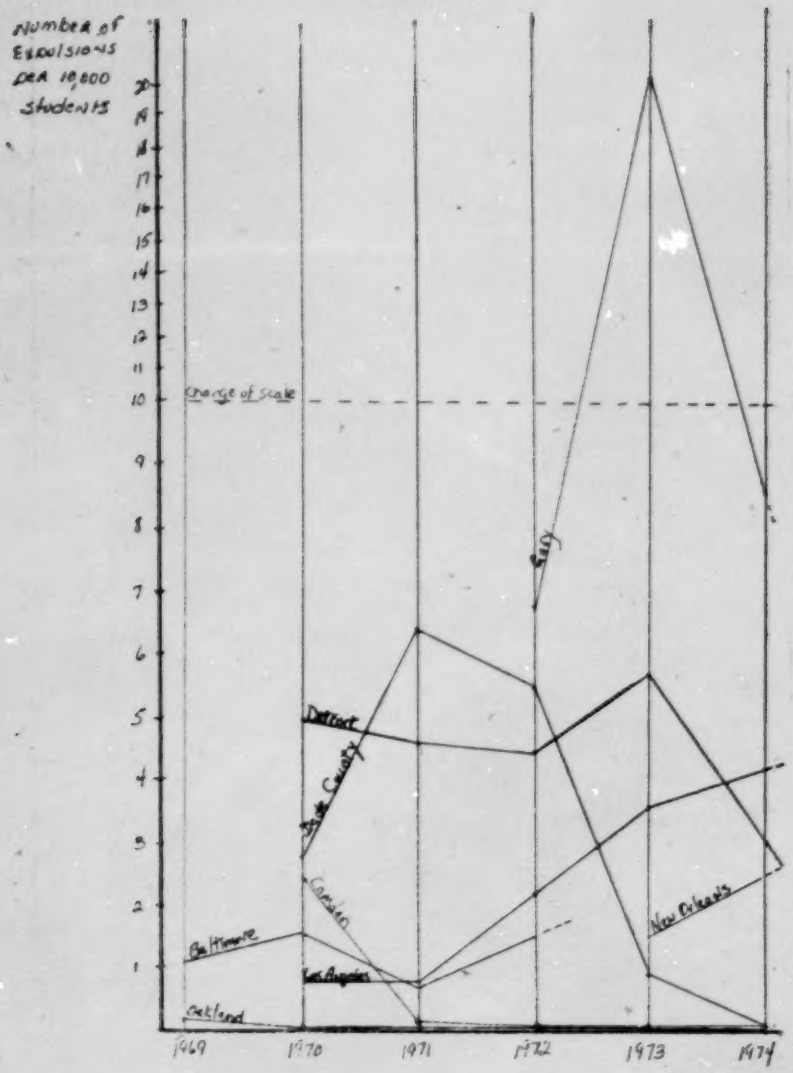


FIGURE 16
EXPULSION TRENDS



OVERVIEW OF CAUSES AND REMEDIES FOR VIOLENCE AND VANDALISM

Superintendents and other school personnel interviewed, recognized the complexity of causes of violence and vandalism. A number of different reasons for disruptive student behavior were suggested.

The most frequently cited reason was insensitivity on the part of school staff to student needs. Economic and societal influences on the school environment were also recognized by most school personnel as contributors to these problems (see table 9).

Administrators felt the problem of violence and vandalism could most effectively be combatted by providing students with employment and recreation during the after school hours and during summer months. Other frequently mentioned remedies included alternative programs and curriculum reform within the schools (see table 10).

Respondents to the survey mentioned the following causes of violence and vandalism in the schools (ranked by order of frequency):

TABLE 9.—*Overview of proposed causes of violence and vandalism*

Insensitivity on the part of school staff	1
Climate of violence in society	2.5
Lack of and reduction in support services due to budget deficits	2.5
Economic causes—the state of the Nation's economy	5
Student alienation	5
Resentment of or lack of confidence in authority figures	5
Suspensions and expulsions (hangers-on outside the schools)	7.5
Permissiveness in society	7.5
Gangs	11.5
Lack of communication between school staff and students, school and community agencies, etc	11.5
Truancy	11.5
Lack of parental control	11.5
Inconsistent application of school discipline	11.5
Student academic deficiencies	11.5
Narcotics	16
Disuse of school facilities after school hours	16
Poor condition of school facilities	16

Respondents to the survey mentioned the following remedies to violence and vandalism in the schools (ranked by order of frequency):

TABLE 10.—*Overview of proposed remedies of violence and vandalism*

Provision for employment and recreation for students after school hours and during the summer	1
Alternative programs for "divergent" students	2
Student and parent participation in decisionmaking	3.5
Meaningful curricula and activities for students	3.5
Increased counseling	5
Funding for alarm systems	6.5
Increased interagency cooperation	6.5
Increased community involvement	9
In-service training for teachers	9
Provision for discipline other than off-site suspension or expulsion	9

CHAPTER III—PROMISING PRACTICES

In every school district included in the survey, successful programs had been developed to cope with the problems of violence, vandalism and exclusion. Several of the cities had developed extremely effective programs for coping with existing problems and preventing future difficulties. Public schools in Miami, Florida and Oakland, California, for example, have all but eliminated expulsions and drastically reduced suspensions. Both systems have done this by combining intensive community involvement and sound, fully implemented public policy. Baltimore, Maryland and New Orleans, Louisiana have developed unusually effective programs for coping with conflict in their school systems. Atlanta, Georgia has an unusually effective security force which is the smallest among the major cities, but operates with great effectiveness. The most unique factor associated with the Atlanta security program is that security personnel operate as a part of the teaching, counseling, administrative team in the schools. The Los Angeles Unified School District, despite its size and complexity, has a number of programs and approaches which address, with considerable success, the multi-

faceted problems facing a large, multi-racial, geographically dispersed school system. In short, ways of coping with the problems have been and are being developed at the local level. These programs have not eliminated the problem; the school systems clearly need help. But it is also true that they do not feel powerless, nor are they overwhelmed by their problems.

In this chapter we present a few of the programs to illustrate wide range of practices utilized in coping with persistent problems. Although the numbers of students included in some of the programs is small, there is every reason to believe that larger numbers of students would be similarly helped if adequate funding, community support and understanding were available.

Conflict resolution.—New Orleans Louisiana and Baltimore, Maryland.

After the first year of desegregation (1974–1975) in Baltimore Public Schools, a *Positive Intervention Project* was initiated to prepare a cadre of skilled persons for schools in which problems had occurred to facilitate and monitor the continuing process of desegregation in those schools; and to provide support services in human relations and problem-solving.

The project began with 47 facilitators from business, industry, community organizations, government agencies, students and faculty who organized into teams during the summer of 1975. These teams conducted a three day workshop where they originated specific plans for potential crisis situations using simulation and role-playing techniques. The plain clothes policemen that would be assigned to problem situations also attended, allowing the team members to become acquainted with them.

When school opened each team was assigned to a school where they operated to prevent small problems or potential problems from developing into crisis situations. They were especially successful in the Hamden area where organizations like the Ku Klux Klan and the American Nazi Party were active. For the first time and in contrast to the previous year, there were no major incidents at schools in this area. Similar successes have been noted in other areas of the city.

The New Orleans Conflict Resolution Teams provide another answer to student unrest in the schools.

Early in 1972, under the supervision of New Orleans' Superintendent, Dr. Gene Geisert, the concept of a Conflict Resolution Team was formed. The concept for the Conflict Resolution Team grew out of a series of consultations with principals in whose schools there were serious instances of student unrest during the fall and winter of the 1971–1972 school year. Composed of individuals who were specially qualified to deal directly with the problem of student unrest, the team was charged with the responsibility of developing new ways of communication and understanding of these problems by working to bring students, teachers, and parents together to discuss prevention of crises situations—many of the student disturbances stemming from recent desegregation.

Funded by a grant of $40,000 from the Tulane University Education Resource Center; Title IV of the Civil Rights Act, the new Program selected four team members of diverse backgrounds: two whites, two blacks. All members had skills in group dynamics and experience with school and community programs.

In the initial stages of the program, two team members were assigned to two different schools to help ease over some situations which had arisen and to develop an esprit and attitude among students that would assist the educational process.

In one school the Teams' effort led to the development of a student-run organization promoting peace and harmony among the students.

In another, parents met regularly in small clusters in neighborhoods to seek solutions to problems in their schools. Workshops were designed for teachers, principals and parents to aid them in dealing with their own overreactions to situations.

Although the Team has not met with 100 percent success, the demand for their services from principals at all school levels has been increasing. Plans for the expansion of the Team are being considered by the Superintendent and members of the board in order that more emphasis can be placed on the problems encountered by students and teachers.

Suspensions and expulsions.—Atlanta, Georgia and Dade County, Florida.

Both the Atlanta Public Schools and the Dade County Schools in dealing with their suspension and expulsion problem, developed programs to address "divergent youth."

The Atlanta School System, in October of 1975, adopted as policy a number of practices already in effect in several Atlanta schools. The *Discipline Imple-*

mentation Committee elected to establish in-school suspension centers under teacher supervision equipped with instructional resources to enable students to continue their learning program and including a counseling component. In addition, a system of alternative schools such as the currently operative *Downtown Learning Center* will be established to provide high school students with an individualized educational setting. The Downtown Learning Center operates on an open campus, individualized contract system offering almost 800 courses on and off-site. Many of the students who choose to attend are potential dropouts according to previous attendance and discipline records, yet almost 80 percent obtain a high school diploma and/or employment through the Center. Further proposed alternatives to suspension and expulsion are comprehensive diagnostic teaching centers which would provide counseling for referred students, returning them to their home schools with a prescriptive educational plan and follow-up by the Center's staff.

The Dade County School Board authorized School Centers for Special Instruction in January of 1973 as a result of the great increase of secondary school suspensions. These centers have as their primary objective the responsibility of providing a supervised facility within the school for students whose behavior would normally warrant outdoor suspension.

Most Centers utilize a program combining formal instruction with individual work. All but three secondary schools in Dade County operated School Centers for Special Instruction in 1974–1975.

In addition, The Opportunity School Program is designed for students for whom the regular school setting may not be appropriate for any number of reasons. The opportunity schools provide alternative program offerings for grades 6–12 in a diagnostic, individualized, flexible school setting until the students are able to resume attendance in the regular school program. Students are admitted on a volunteer as well as a referral basis and may return to the regular school program upon recommendation at the end of a quinmester. Returning students are accompanied by a written report to enable the regular school to prepare a "plan of action" designed to assist the student in adjusting to the regular school program. In addition, liaison personnel and counselors monitor the student's progress in the Opportunity School and then the home school.

During the 1972–1973 school year, the number of suspensions in Dade County decreased by 32 percent and expulsions decreased by 15 percent. In the following year the number of suspensions dropped another 41 percent while the number of expulsions decreased 83 percent. By 1974–1975 there were no expulsions from the Dade County schools. This dramatic decrease is directly attributable to consistent implementation of board of education policies which emphasize due process on the one hand and a wide variety of alternatives to suspension and expulsion on the other.

Alternative programs.—Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

A wide range of alternative programs to provide options for all types of students has been established in most of the districts surveyed.

In Philadelphia over 90 alternative programs have been established to provide educational options for 11,000 students whose needs were not being met through the regular educational offerings. These students range from poor achievers and dropouts to students with exceptional ability. The philosophy of program administrators is that every child in the Philadelphia school system should have an alternative to existing traditional school programs.

Evaluations of these programs have shown that the number of disruptive incidents, absenteeism, suspensions and expulsions are considerably lower than the rate among the general population. These programs are funded by Title I and Title III of ESEA; school district operating budget monies; and the total budget for alternative programs is less than ½ of 1 percent of the district's operating budgets.

One of the many successful alternative programs of the School District of Philadelphia is the *Franklin Learning Center*. The Center is set up on a collegiate model with free program choice and freedom of student movement. There is an arrangement with the Philadelphia Community College whereby students can take courses for credit. Students can pace themselves through high school, finishing as quickly or as slowly as they wish.

The school has virtually no discipline problems and it draws its population from all over the city. The student body of about 700–750 is integrated and there is a waiting list of over 1,000 students.

The Philadelphia alternative programs enroll 50 percent "disruptive" students. The incidence of violence has almost completely vanished and attendance and achievement have improved drastically. Administrators feel that smaller school size, lower pupil-teacher ratios, and increased participation in decision-making by teachers and students contribute to the success of these programs.

LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

Programs for Divergent Youth were started in the Los Angeles School District as alternatives to expulsion and suspensions for the "troublemaker" or "non-interested" student. A number of these programs are listed below:

The On-Site Opportunity Classes enrolls 12 pupils per class and provides specialized guidance and instructional programs.

Community Centered Classrooms (Tri-C) utilizes the resources of the community in off-site storefront classrooms. Enrolling ten students per class, Tri-C utilizes curriculum flexible enough to meet the requirements of vocationally directed and college-bound students by providing individualized instruction and career counseling. Tri-C encourages participation of parents, community agencies, and resources from private industry as a part of an overall team approach.

Vandalism Reduction Program created student committees employed by the District fifteen hours weekly in three junior high-vandalism areas to raise community and student awareness of school vandalism and to reduce incidence of vandalism in these target areas.

Operation Stay in School counsels truant students and their parents at a Recreation Center staffed by the District. Follow-up services throughout the school year are arranged.

Project Furlough provides potential drop-outs in grades 10–12 with a year's leave of absence when it appears that students would benefit from pursuing other activities. Students and parents sign contracts which will provide credits toward diploma if completed.

CARD (Concentrated Approach to Reduce Delinquency) developed by the Los Angeles Unified School District, Division of Educational Support Services, was an 11-week program developed to provide a framework through which services to schools—such as psychological, tutorial, employment opportunity, vocational and career, medical—and additional personnel could be channeled.

CARD was created to allow schools to identify to CARD personnel and to develop through proposals, programs which could be implemented in the schools for divergent youth (youth displaying chronically maladaptive behavior and excessively withdrawn, non-involved youth). Some of the programs developed were: Rap rooms; Transition counselors, elementary school counselors and rumor control.

All proposals submitted to CARD personnel emphasized the following objectives:

1. Reduction of Classroom disruption;
2. Development of an environment conducive to academic success;
3. Effect an attitudinal change in maladaptive or potential maladaptive students; and
4. Reduction of truancy and absenteeism.

One example of the type of program developed to address these goals is the group counseling program at Washington High School.

This program is a full-time service offered to students by the school counseling staff and represents a sizeable part of a total guidance system which includes also full-time career counseling and full-time college counseling.

The group counseling component, being part of the total school guidance system, is able to draw on the resources and strengths of the entire counseling staff.

Students enter the program through a variety of referrals: teachers who feel a particular student would benefit from a group counseling experience; vice-principals who feel a student would gain more from counseling than from punitive measures; students who have established or are beginning to establish sporadic attendance patterns; and parents who would like the counseling experience for their sons and daughters. The program is allocated the services of a full-time group counselor, who has no additional guidance assignments and the use of physical facilities adequate to implement the program.

PROGRAMS FOR ALIENATED YOUTH

The *HAY (Help Alienated Youth—May, 1971)* Project, an alternative educational setting in East Orange, New Jersey is structured to effect behavioral

change among high school students who have been conspicuously unsuccessful in regular high school programs: (youth with personal problems and/or scholastic failures/learning disabilities). The Program is operated through the joint participation of professionals, city and school officials, students and parent representatives.

The prime consideration in the educational program at HAY is given to the development of a learning climate in which students "learn to learn." Some of the goals of the program are to offer a healthier and more productive alternative for the present methods of dealing with alienated youth; and to reach a larger number of youth needing specialized services of HAY through the use of the program's "early warning system."

The HAY program hopes to accomplish some of its objectives by offering students the type of program and the variety of subjects, materials, and companions to stimulate the students toward making their HAY program participation a meaningful experience; and by enabling youth in the program to rejoin the mainstream of the student body in their educational endeavors towards meeting the State's requirements for graduation.

Reasons for success of the program are small pupil-teacher ratio; intimacy of setting; concept of *no credit* as a substitute for failure grades; varied instructional methods; parent organization and community participation.

The "in-house" HAY program is designed to accommodate a maximum number of fifty students per year. The average length of time a student stays in HAY has been six months (or two semesters of school); the estimated number of students receiving HAY benefits per year is between 25 and 30 students.

The New Orleans Public Schools' *Street Academy* recruits school dropouts who are 16 years or older and offers an opportunity to develop academic and interpersonal skills that will expand their career possibilities. The curriculum stresses basic skills in reading, mathematics, and language, supplemented by offerings in consumer education, practical law, business practices, Afro-American studies, and others. Equal importance is placed on building the self-esteem of students whose previous educational experiences have ended in failure.

The community is viewed as an active partner in the process of human reclamation, with business and professional people contributing their time and experience. The Street Academy's commitment goes beyond graduation. Follow-up is done regularly to assure the student that help is available if needed. Of its 52 graduates, 22 were admitted to colleges, 10 enrolled in vocational and training programs, and 20 are employed.

The *Job Upgrading Voluntary Program* of the Detroit Public Schools, begun in 1949 as a pilot, provides educational and occupational adjustment for young people who have either left school or are potential dropouts. Funded by Title I, the goals of the program are to provide instruction and subsidized work experience which help enrollees secure and keep a job as well as to assist those who need or want further education or training.

Morning phases of the program provide enrollees with individual counseling and classes in regular school programs; afternoon phases are used for subsidized work assignments primarily in the profit-making sector. The Detroit Council for Youth Services pays enrolees not paid with Title I funds.

During the school year, the 16 centers in operation provide services for approximately 600 active enrollees. Follow-up calls and counseling continue after trainees leave the program.

The *In-School Neighborhood Youth Corps* helps youth from 12 designated public senior high schools to stay in school by providing the supportive services of counseling and guidance coordinated with paid, work experience. During a 10-hour work week, students earn wages while employed in schools and other non-public agencies.

Enrollees may also be paid while participating in any agency training program and tutorial services which are offered to improve any skills.

Working alongside of regular employees helps enrollees establish meaningful adult-oriented relations and assists them in understanding what is required for various jobs and what employers look for in workers.

The Youth Services System, begun in 1973 under the auspices of the Atlantic Public Schools, was funded by the Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Act of 1972 through HEW. The project developed a network of youth services linking public agencies such as schools, police, courts, recreation, housing and welfare as well as relevant private agencies in order to divert youth from the Juvenile Justice System and to provide them with access to desirable social roles within the context of the schools, family, labor market, and community. From 1973 until 1975,

the Youth Services System worked with over 225 youth and 240 adult volunteers who served on area and city-wide councils and task forces. The project worked with approximately 75 youth referral services and initiated the operation of a Community Youth Resource Center in high schools and middle schools. Counseling, job placement, medical treatment, educational placement, vocational training, legal assistance and temporary residential care were offered to the nearly 700 youth referred to the Youth Services System in those two years. The funding for the Youth Services System expired on October 1, 1975 and the release of LEAA funds is still pending.

The importance of community services to schooling is also recognized in Atlanta by its approach to school organization.

The *Kennedy Center*, built in 1970, is a multi-service center which houses a number of community service organizations as well as the Kennedy Middle School. Representatives from the Housing Authority, Public Assistance, and Social Security agencies are located on the first two floors along with services for senior citizens, a vocational rehabilitation center, day care services, court services, a community school, and classes for mentally retarded students. The building includes an auditorium, a gymnasium and basketball court, recreation and health rooms, a cafeteria, and a snack bar operated by students in the vocational rehabilitation program. All of these facilities are offered for use by students and members of the surrounding community.

The Middle School on the third floor operates on a cluster concept with various centers offering multi-level individualized instruction in specific areas. Each center has four teachers and one assistant who work also in interdisciplinary teams to write individual monthly contracts for each student.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

An excellent model for community involvement is provided by the *Master Plan Citizens Committee of Oakland, California.*

In 1970 the Oakland, California public schools embarked on a program of educational reform. Like many other inner cities, Oakland had changed rapidly during the 1960's. So had the schools. Enrollment became largely nonwhite. Student achievement on standardized tests declined. Education costs spiraled; resources to meet the changing needs lagged far behind. Facilities were old and poorly maintained. It was an all-too-familiar pattern.

Then, in 1970, the late Dr. Marcus Foster came to Oakland with a mandate to "open up the system." He felt that to restore confidence in the schools the community must be directly involved in addressing the massive, seemingly overwhelming problem of educating young people to cope with a changing world.

With this in mind, the Oakland School Board, the administration, and the community—all those concerned with the future of the schools—cautiously began to build a new set of relationships. In a city as diverse as Oakland, involvement invariably means different things to different people. The schools sought to shape opportunities for participation, to articulate and meet these needs. The creation of a Master Plan Citizens Committee was central to that strategy.

Over a four-year period, with the assistance of The Rockefeller Foundation, the School District made a concerted effort to bring parents, students, organized community interest groups, and civic, religious, and service organizations, as well as school staff, into a decision-sharing relationship. The Master Plan Citizens Committee was established to investigate a broad set of issues in the areas of curriculum and instruction, finance, multicultural education, management and administration, buildings and maintenance, and community relations.

In some ways the process itself was as important as the products. As people from different backgrounds, representing different constituencies began to work together, they found that their interests were not always as disparate as they had thought. As they began to agree on major policy and program initiatives, and as the board and the administration adopted their proposals, attitudes toward the system began to change.

Perhaps nothing is more indicative of the change that has taken place than the fact that in 1973 a 44 million dollar bond issue, which resulted from recommendations of the Master Plan Citizens Committee Task Force on School Buildings, passed with a two-thirds voter majority (the only one to pass by that margin in the state of California). Now over thirty of the ninety school buildings in the city are to be rebuilt, in each case with community involvement in the planning process. All this just three years after a tax override election received only 17 percent voter support.

This community involvement also had a more dramatic effect on teacher and student behavior in the schools. Oakland, alone among the cities we surveyed, experienced a decrease in the number of drug and weapons violations over the past five years. There were no expulsions over the past four years and their rate of suspensions is among the lowest of the cities surveyed.

For other examples of programs that have been successful see citations at the end of Chapter I.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In presenting our study, we are aware of the fact that there are significant differences among scholars and others over the severity of the problem. Some would argue that the incidence has been exaggerated. Others believe we have a catastrophic problem. Proposed solutions to the problems are equally diverse. Some argue for increasing physical security through intrusion alarms and other devices. Others want police throughout the schools. Some educational critics assert that schools must be drastically reorganized because, in their present configuration, they create and encourage crime and violence. The favorite all-purpose solution is to eliminate the "root causes" of school violence.

In a very perceptive article in the May, 1976 *Educational Researcher*, Professor James Q. Wilson argues that we must realize crime does not occur in schools in isolation from crime in the rest of society. Much of what we call crime in schools is crime committed by young people who happen to be enrolled in a school or who happen to commit the crimes on the way to or from school. It has been made painfully evident by reports and studies, that most serious property crime is committed by juveniles and most serious crime is committed by young adults and the age at which they begin committing these crimes has been getting lower.

We make no claim to having the solution to the problems we studied. Professor Wilson and others may be right when they argue that we are facing a problem, the causes of which we do not understand very well. It may very well be that a profound shift in values is producing rebellion and disruption. Whatever the nature of the problem, we must use whatever intelligence and resources we have to ameliorate the problem. Our study represents one attempt to contribute to that process.

On the basis of our findings the following observations can be made:

1. Much of the currently available statistical data on violence and vandalism in schools which have been gathered nationally are of questionable accuracy and should be used as a basis for public policy development only with full knowledge of their limitations. These data are based on anecdotal information, survey responses to written questionnaires, proceedings from conferences of various kinds, telephone and personal interviews, investigation of actual records of specific incidents, unsubstantiated assertions of individuals or groups, research documents, U.S. Government documents and remembrances of things past. Categories (theft, assault, arson, etc.) are poorly defined and it is difficult to demonstrate comparability in the macro data. Most districts have data only for the past two or three years.

2. Much of the national statistical data on suspensions and expulsions or exclusions are also of questionable accuracy, and although these data are probably more reliable than much of the data on violence and vandalism, these data suffer from the same criticisms noted above. Particularly troublesome are the problems of distinguishing between multiple suspensions of one individual and cumulative suspensions of many individuals on the one hand; and clear definitions of the terms "suspension" and "expulsion" on the other.

3. School districts policies on suspensions and expulsions have an impact on the number, nature, and duration of suspensions and expulsions. Miami, Florida is an excellent example of the relationship between school policies and suspensions. In the 15 school systems studied one-third to one-fourth of all suspensions fall into categories where teachers' judgments are the determining factors. These data support similar findings in the Children's Defense Fund Reports.

4. The greater the number and kind of alternatives available to students in a system, the more likely that the number of exclusions will be reduced.

5. There appears to be no significant relationship between the size of the security force and the incidence of violence and vandalism. Large numbers of security personnel do not appear to be related to a decline of violence and vandalism in all categories. We did, however, find that the type of security force—in at least two cities—had a direct effect in reducing the incidence in certain categories of criminal behavior.

6. Although most school systems consider violence and vandalism a problem, there are differences in perception concerning the magnitude of the problem. Some educators in school systems perceive violence and vandalism as a problem of great magnitude; to others they are of lesser magnitude than problems of finance and flexibility.

7. In every instance, school personnel perceive, as a major problem, outsiders (intruders and non-students) entering buildings, creating disruptions and attacking students or staff.

8. In every system there are locally designed programs which have proved effective in solving some of the problems and reducing the incidence, not only of violence and vandalism, but suspensions and expulsions as well.

9. Without exception, school personnel in the central office and in school buildings did not believe that policemen or armed security personnel were an answer to the persistent problem of student disruption, violence or vandalism. On the other hand, school personnel, without exception, believed that police or security personnel were necessary to keep intruders out of buildings and off the school grounds.

10. School personnel were aware of the complexity of causes of violence and vandalism. Yet, a major cause, as perceived by most school personnel, was insensitivity of school staff toward student growth and development problems, student feelings and values.

11. In all cases, crimes against property outnumbered crimes against people.

12. The most frequently recommended remedy for violence and vandalism in schools was parttime and summer employment for students. In addition, an overwhelming majority of persons interviewed perceived the general depressed economic conditions as a major contributor to student disruption.

13. While there is a discernible overall upward trend in disruptive incidents in schools, certain districts show a decrease in specific categories (e.g., drug violations, vandalism, assaults).

14. While the number of incidents of vandalism appears to be decreasing in many districts, the cost of vandalism is going up in almost every district and in some larger districts totals millions of dollars. This seeming discrepancy represents the effects of better reporting procedures and the escalation in costs due to inflation.

15. In almost all cases where problems of violence and vandalism have been reduced or eliminated, it was the result of the cooperation of many agencies. The more serious the incident, the greater the need for inter-agency participation and cooperation in the solution of the problem.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The issue of how the Federal Government can address the problems of violence and vandalism in schools has been an area of considerable concern to educators and legislators. On the basis of our research we recommend for further study, the following areas in which federal assistance might be directed.

1. The Federal Government could provide funding for local action teams comprised of school district personnel, parents, students, citizens and representatives of other agencies in the community. It is obvious that amelioration of many of the problems connected with crime cannot be the responsibility of public schools systems alone. Federal funding should be provided to local action teams to explore using other municipal agencies along with the private sector including courts, police and social service agencies, etc. in order to cooperate with the school districts in combatting violence and vandalism in the schools.

The funding would be used for planning grants to diagnose the problems within a local school district and to develop a local plan of action (See Research for Better Schools *Study on Planning Assistance Programs To Reduce School Violence and Disruptions*, Philadelphia, Pa., January, 1976, page 138ff). Funding should provide expenses for travel, released time for training, equipment or materials, and staff for local coordination of activities.

2. After programs have been approved, funds for implementation should be tied to the gathering of accurate micro data (school by school as well as system wide) in a consistent method across the country. Widespread community involvement should continue through the implemenation stage and accurate reports on the success and failure of programs should be given to the federal government on a year by year basis for evaluation and determination if continued funding is warranted. Reporting practices and procedures should be standardized.

3. The Federal Government should provide funds for the training of security personnel. The training should focus on the integration of security as a part of the teaching, counseling, administrative team. The Security Director should, however, report to a high level administrator. The emphasis should not be on police procedures, although some training in this area may be included.

4. Funding should be provided for dissemination of information about successful planning, operation and implementation procedures so that these may be shared by systems across the country.

5. Research and development efforts should be funded and carried out by non-school agencies which would gather, analyze and present data in an appropriate form for policy-makers at the federal and state levels.

APPENDIX A

ASSAULTS ON STUDENTS

[Figures in parentheses indicate the number of assaults on students per 10,000 students]

City	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75
Baltimore [1]	[2] NA	NA	282(15.42)	203(11.10)	386(21.10)	832(45.49)
Berkeley	NA	NA	NA	115(82.14)	57(40.71)	68(48.57)
Dade County	NA	326(13.34)	NA	674(27.58)	606(24.80)	919(37.61
Detroit [3]	NA	186 (7.00)	168 (6.33)	134 (5.04)	170 (6.40)	240(9.04)
Gary	NA	NA	NA	13 (3.00)	20 (4.62)	3(.69)
Los Angeles	NA	NA	NA	330 (5.44)	517 (8.52)	445(7.33)
Oakland			Approximately 50 per year.			(8.79)
Philadelphia	NA	NA	NA	NA	236 (8.81)	340(12.69)
St. Louis			Total for years 1970-1975 was 287.			

[1] The data for Baltimore indicate simple assaults only (see "Assaults on Teachers").
[2] NA means not available.
[3] The data for Detroit indicate the number of suspensions occasioned by attacks on students.

Note: Atlanta indicated that total assaults (on staff and students combined) equaled 16[illegible] in 1973-74 and 203 in years 1974-75.

APPENDIX B

ASSAULTS ON TEACHERS

[Figures in parentheses indicate the number of assaults on teachers per 10,000 students]

City	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75
Baltimore [1]	[2] NA	NA	75 (4.10)	73 (3.99)	97 (5.30)	219 (11.97)
Berkeley	NA	NA	NA	14 (10.00)	7 (5.00)	5 (3.60)
Dade County	NA	72 (2.95)	NA	169 (6.92)	131 (5.36)	180 (7.37)
Detroit [3]	NA	149 (5.61)	141 (5.31)	119 (4.48)	102 (3.84)	103 (3.87)
East Orange [4]	4-5	4-5	4-5	4-5	4-5	4-5 (3.79)
Gary	NA	NA	NA	20 (4.62)	17 (3.92)	3 (.69)
Los Angeles [5]	NA	NA	NA	242 (3.99)	359 (5.91)	346 (5.70)
Oakland	3 (0.53)	6 (1.05)	6 (1..5)	9 (1.58)	49 (8.61)	37 (6.50)
Philadelphia	NA	NA	NA	NA	142 (5.30)	230 (8.58)
St. Louis			Total for the years 1970-75 was 194.			

[1] The data for Baltimore indicate simple assaults only. Totals for aggravated assault on all school personnel are as follows: 1971=279; 1972=159; 1973=194; 1974=562.
[2] NA indicates information was not available.
[3] The data for Detroit indicate the number of suspensions occasioned by attacks on staff members rather than the number of total incidents.
[4] The figures for East Orange are approximations: 4 to 5 assaults per year.
[5] The figures for Los Angeles include assaults on security agents as well as teachers.

APPENDIX C

ASSAULTS ON ALL SCHOOL PERSONNEL

[Figures in parenthesis indicate the number of assaults on all school personnel per 10,000 students]

City	1970–71	1971–72	1972–73	1973–74	1974–75
Atlanta	98(10.89)	111(12.33)	72(8.00)	166(18.44)	203(22.55)
Baltimore	[1] NA	400(21.87)	309(16.89)	516(28.21)	1,134(62.00)
Berkeley	NA	NA	129(92.14)	64(45.71)	73(52.14)
Dade County	398(16.29)	NA	843(34.50)	737(30.16)	1,099(44.97)
Detroit [2]	335(12.61)	309(11.63)	253(9.53)	272(10.24)	343(12.91)
Gary	NA	NA	33(7.62)	37(81.54)	6 (1.39)
Los Angeles	NA	NA	558(9.19)	893(14.71)	729(13.05)
Oakland	NA	125(21.97)	167(29.35)	147(25.83)	160(28.12)
Philadelphia	NA	NA	NA	378(14.11)	570(21.28)

[1] NA indicates information was not available.
[2] The data for Detroit indicate the number of suspensions occasioned by assaults rather than the total number of incidents of assaults.

APPENDIX D

RATES OF CRIMINAL INCIDENTS, 1974–75

[Figures in col. 1 under each city indicate actual number of incidents. Figures in col. 2 represent rate of incidence (number of incidents per 10,000 students). Mean rate represents mean rate of incidence per 10,000 students across all cities listed]

	Atlanta		Baltimore [1]		Dade County		Detroit [2]		Los Angeles		Oakland		Philadelphia [3]		Mean Rate
	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	
Crime against property:															
Burglary	322	35.78	N.R.	(*)	1,797	73.54	N.R.	(*)	5,073	83.56	329	57.81	484	18.07	53.75
Vandalism	54	6.00	53	2.90	1,380	56.47	20	0.75	699	11.51	317	55.79	(864)	32.25	23.65
Larceny-theft	173	19.22	758	41.44	2,410	98.63	106	3.99	2,087	34.38	147	25.83	N.R.	(*)	37.25
Trespass	174	19.33	636	34.77	349	14.69	N.R.	(*)	513	8.45	N.R.	(*)	186	6.94	16.84
Arson	14	1.55	75	4.10	73	2.99	10	.38	136	2.24	13	2.28	(313)	11.68	3.60
Total	737	81.89	1,522	136.96	6,019	246.32	136	75.71	8,508	140.14	806	158.46	1,847	106.19	135.09
Crime against people:															
Robbery extortion	29	3.22	417	22.80	195	7.98	61	2.30	361	5.95	33	5.90	123	4.59	7.52
Assault	203	22.55	1,134	62.00	1,039	44.97	343	12.91	792	13.04	160	28.11	570	21.27	29.26
Sex offenses	24	2.67	1	.05	52	2.13	23	.87	85	1.42	11	1.93	N.R.	(*)	1.51
Homicides	0	0	N.R.	(*)	0	0	N.R.	(*)	6	.10	2	.35	(1)	.04	.10
Total	256	28.44	1,552	84.95	1,346	55.08	427	16.18	1,245	20.51	206	36.19	694	27.41	38.39
Other:															
Drug violations	33	3.67	259	14.16	166	6.79	130	4.89	713	11.74	20	3.51	227	8.47	7.60
Weapons violations	70	7.78	239	13.07	84	3.44	211	7.95	476	7.84	49	8.61	90	3.36	7.44
Total	256	28.44	1,552	84.95	1,346	55.03	427	16.18	1,245	20.51	206	36.19	694	27.41	38.39

[1] Figures for Baltimore are based on the number of alleged incidents of each crime.
[2] Figures for Detroit are based on the number of suspensions caused by each type of incident.
[3] Figures for Philadelphia on vandalism, arson, and homicide are averages based on the total number of incidents from 1970–75 in each category.

*Where missing data exists, the mean rate of incidence per 10,000 students for the category is used as an approximation.

Note: N.R. means not reported.

APPENDIX E

NUMBER OF SUSPENSIONS YEAR-BY-YEAR

City	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75
Atlanta	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	458 (51)
Baltimore	1,201 (68)	1,261 (69)	1,582 (86)	1,692 (92)	1,151 (63)	1,745 (95)
Berkeley	NA	NA	NA	121 (86)	211 (151)	147 (105)
Camden	NA	NA	NA	1,223 (611)	1,820 (910)	1,338 (669)
Dade County	9,730(398)	9,759 (399)	11,957 (489)	8,066 (330)	4,733 (194)	4,105 (168)
Detroit	NA	1,412 (53)	1,289 (49)	1,480 (56)	1,567 (59)	1,574 (59)
East Orange	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,563(1,317)
Gary	NA	NA	NA	NA	2,096 (484)	3,815 (881)
Los Angeles	NA	NA	NA	30,052 (495)	40,121 (661)	40,619 (669)
Oakland	NA	1,277 (224)	1,144 (201)	1,349 (237)	725 (127)	1,059 (186)
Philadelphia	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	56,437(2,106)
Plainfield [2]	NA	1,174(1,236)	1,355(1,426)	[1] 2,348(2,472)	1,884(1,983)	1,243(1,308)
St. Louis [3]	NA	684	493	482	641	619
Wilmington		129 (86)	91 (61)	196 (131)	386 (257)	2,740 (827)

[1] Separate records of suspensions in Detroit public schools from 1972-75 showed differing figures. Alternate figures for those years are: 1972-73=1,729; 1973-74=1,346; 1974-75=1,515.
[2] The listing of suspensions for Plainfield also includes "exclusions" for the years 1970 to 1974.
[3] The St. Louis data includes elementary school suspensions only for the years listed. In 1974-75, the number of secondary school suspensions was 949.

Note: Figures in parentheses indicate the number of suspensions per (10,000) students. N.A. indicates information was not available.

APPENDIX F

NUMBER OF EXPULSIONS YEAR-BY-YEAR

City	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75
Atlanta	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Baltimore	20(1.09)	34(1.86)	13 (.71)	34(1.86)	NA	NA
Berkeley	NA	NA	NA	0	0	0
Camden	NA	5 (2.5)	0	0	0	0
Dade County	NA	68(2.78)	157(6.42)	135(5.52)	23 (.94)	0
Detroit [1]	NA	132(4.97)	123(4.63)	119(4.48)	153 (5.76)	83(3.12)
East Orange	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Gary	NA	NA	NA	29(6.70)	89(20.55)	37(8.54)
Los Angeles	NA	45 (.74)	45 (.74)	134(2.21)	222 (3.66)	259(4.27)
New Orleans [2]	NA	0	0	0	15 (1.51)	25(2.51)
Oakland	1 (.18)	0	0	0	0	0
Philadelphia	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Plainfield	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
St. Louis	NA	0	0	0	0	0
Wilmington	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	4(2.67)

[1] Detroit does not recognize total expulsion. These figures represent the number of students excluded by evaluative services or suspended indefinitely.
[2] These figures for New Orleans are estimations only.

Note: Figures in parentheses indicate the number of suspensions per (10,000) students. NA indicates information was not available.

APPENDIX G

DEFINITIONS OF SUSPENSION AND EXPULSION

City	Definition	Person responsible	Average number of days
Atlanta	Suspension is the exclusion of a student from school for no more than 5 days.	Principal	
Baltimore	Suspension is the removal of a student from school for up to 45 days.	Regional superintendent	24.
	Disciplinary removal is the exclusion of a student from school for up to 3 days.	Principal	
	Indefinite suspension is the exclusion of a student upon psychological recommendation.	Superintendent	
	Expulsion is permanent removal of a student from the school system.	Board of education	
Berkeley	Suspension is the temporary exclusion of a student from school (no more than 5 days on the elementary level).	Principal	3.3
	Expulsion is the denial of the right to attend school	Board of education	

APPENDIX G—Continued

DEFINITIONS OF SUSPENSION AND EXPULSION—Continued

City	Definition	Person responsible	Average number of days
Camden	Suspension is the exclusion of a student from school for up to 2 weeks.	Principal	
	Expulsion is the indefinite exclusion of a student from school.	Board of education	
Dade County (Miami, Fla.)	Suspension is the exclusion of a student from school for up to 10 days, or for an additional 30 days.	Principal, superintendent	
	Expulsion is the withdrawal of a student's right to attend school.	Board of education	
Detroit	Exclusion is the removal of a student from school for no more than 3 days until he/she returns with parent.	Principal/teacher (from class only).	
	Suspension is a temporary dismissal of a student from school which may follow exclusion (see above).	Regional superintendent	
	Expulsion is suspension of a student from the school	Board of education	
East Orange	Suspension is the temporary removal of a student from the school for a definite period not to exceed 5 days.	Principal	
	Expulsion is the termination of school membership for a student.	Board of education	
Gary	Suspension is the removal of a student from school for 1 to 5 days.	Principal	
	Expulsion is the removal of a student from school for 10 days to a semester.	Director of special services.	
Los Angeles	Suspension is the temporary dismissal of a student for up to 5 days from school or for 1 day from class.	Principal/teacher	1.8
	Expulsion is the permanent dismissal of a student	Board of education	
New Orleans	Short-term suspension is the denial of school attendance for up to 3 days.		
	Long-term suspension is the denial of attendance for more than 3 days but less than a school term.		
	Limited expulsion is the denial of school attendance until the following school year.		
	Unlimited expulsion is the denial of school attendance until later than the following school year or permanently.		
Oakland	Suspension is dismissal from school for 1 to 10 days	Principal/teacher	[1] 2.8 [2] 1.0
	Expulsion is indefinite removal from school	Board of education	
Philadelphia	Temporary suspension is exclusion of a student from school (without a hearing) for up to 3 days.	Principal	
	Full suspension is exclusion of a student from school for up to 10 days.	do	
	Expulsion is exclusion of a student from school for over 10 days.	Board of Education	
Plainfield	Suspension is removal of a student from school for a definite period of time:		
	Up to 10 days	Principal	
	Over 10 days	Superintendent	
	Over 30 days	Board of education	
	Exclusion is the removal of a student from school until a parent conference takes place.	Principal	
St. Louis	Suspension is the removal of a student from school for less than 10 days until a parent conference takes place.	do	
	Expulsion is the permanent withdrawal of a student from the school system.	Board of education	
Wilmington	Suspension is the temporary removal or withdrawal of a student from school.		
	Expulsion is the permanent exclusion of a student from school.		

[1] Principal.
[2] Teacher.

APPENDIX H

SURVEY OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS

1. How many students have been suspended over the past 5 years? (year by year): (*a*) For what reasons? (*b*) For how long? (*c*) Is the trend up or down?
2. How many students have been expelled over the last 5 years? (year by year): (*a*) For what reasons? (*b*) For how long? (*c*) Is the trend up or down?
3. How is suspension defined?
4. How is expulsion defined?
5. (*a*) What legal restrictions on Board policies govern suspension and expulsion?

(*b*) What due process channels have been devised for students faced with suspension or explusion?

6. What has been the incidence of physical attacks on teachers and administrators by pupils over the past five years?
(a) Is the incidence increasing? decreasing? stable?
7. What percentage of physical attacks on teachers and administrators are by outsiders (non-students)?
(a) Has there been any pattern to these attacks? (White on Black? Black on White? Black on Black? White on White?)
8. What has been the incidence of physical attacks on students during the past five years?
(a) What has been the nature of these attacks? (knives, guns, etc.)
(b) What percentage of these attacks have racial overtones? (Desegregation, etc.)
(c) How many are conducted by students? by outsiders?
9. What has been the incidence of vandalism over the past five years?
(a) Has it increased?
(b) Is it localized in certain specific areas of the city? In certain schools?
10. What has vandalism cost the school system? (Financially.)
(a) Are there difficulties in getting good estimates of costs?
11. What are contributing causes for vandalism, physical attacks on students, teachers, administrators?
12. What assistance is needed to cope with vandalism, violence, etc.?
13. Has the "climate of violence or fear" affected teaching and learning in schools? If so, how? If not, why not?
14. What percentage of students are involved in violence, vandalism, etc.?
15. What steps have administrators and teachers taken individually or cooperatively to countract these phenomena?
16. Recent national polls indicate that more than ¾ of parents view discipline in schools as a major problem. What can school systems do to address this concern?
(a) Is discipline a more severe problem today than 3–5 years ago?
17. What are 2 or 3 outstanding examples of programs or schools in the system that are working for students despite problems?
(a) To what do you attribute this success?
(b) Can they be duplicated?
(c) How?
(d) What help do you need?
18. What could the Federal Government (USOE, HEW, etc.) do to assist in expanding or duplicating these good programs or schools.

Dr. WATSON. A valid discussion of violence and vandalism in school districts requires a concomitant understanding of the context within which the schools operate. The crime rate across the United States has increased sharply over the past 5 years and the incidence of crime in cities where school districts were examined for this study has been considerably greater than in the school districts themselves. In most cases, the schools represent an oasis of safety when they are compared to the environment within the city at large.

As an example, the latest crime statistics available from the Federal Bureau of Investigation indicate that for the period 1969 to 1974 there was an increase in burglary of 46.1 percent; larceny and theft, 28.9 percent; auto theft, almost 6 percent; for a total increase in property crimes of 31 percent.

In violent crimes against people the appropriate figures were robbery, an increase of 41.1 percent; assault, 39.7 percent; rape, 41.8 percent; and murder, 32.9 percent; for a total increase over the period of 40.3 percent.

In 1974–75, for the six cities where school district data were available, city burglary rates ranged from three to nine times as high as school district rates; city larceny rates ranged from 10 to 20 times as high as school district rates; city robbery rates ranged from 8 to

27 times as high as school district rates; city assault rates ranged from 1 to 4 times as high as school district rates; and city homicide rates ranged from 10 to 50 times as high as school district rates.

Atlanta, which has one of the highest rates of homicide in the country, 6.19 per 10,000 inhabitants, had none last year within the school district. That none refers to homicide. The city's robbery rate was 27 times higher than that of the school district; the rate of theft or larceny was 20 times higher; and the rate of burglary was 9 times higher. We have charts which are in the complete report which illustrate the figures we have used.

For the past few years, the annual Gallup Poll on Education has demonstrated that American citizens consider discipline in the schools to be a major problem. It has been placed No. 1 on the list of concerns, reflecting the growing fear that American schools are unsafe places for parents to send their children each day. This fear has been amplified by the reports, studies, hearings, and discussions conducted by educators, social scientists, concerned citizens' groups, and legislative bodies. Almost without exception, the reports conclude that increasing numbers of violent acts against persons and property are occuring on school grounds, in school buildings and classrooms both during and after school hours. Drawing upon these reports and upon investigations of their own, the media have contributed to the creation of a perception on the part of many citizens that the schools of America are becoming combat zones where education has become a distant second priority to problems of security.

A closer look at the statistics and information which have contributed to this perception, however, reveals some interesting differences between the perception and the reality. Although it is clear that violence, vandalism, student suspensions, and expulsions represent major problem areas in schools today, it is also clear that the incidence and severity of these problems vary across school districts. Moreover, despite the public image of schools as fortresses, with teachers, students, and administrators operating in a climate of fear and helplessness, the reality is much more complex. There are schools and school systems which have addressed with great skill the problems of disruption, violence, and vandalism. Programs and policies designed locally have in some cases reduced or eliminated the problem. Despite the many studies which point to a decided increase in problems over the past 5 years, there are systems where the problems have been reduced, and in some cases, eliminated. In other systems, there has in fact been an increase in violence, suspensions and expulsions, and vandalism. Even in these systems, however, the trend line has not been upward in all years, but has varied year by year; up in certain categories, steady in others, down in still other categories.

In an attempt to examine these phenomena in depth, a study was made of violence and vandalism in public school systems in 15 cities. These school systems were located in the Far West, Middle West, Northeast, and South. Student enrollments ranged from over 600,000 to less than 10,000. Data was gathered through a survey instrument, examination of local documents, interviews with central office, and field personnel including principals, teachers, and counselors, and by on-site visits to schools, special and alternative programs and central

administrative offices. Data gathered in this manner were supplemented by a review of other research studies, records of congressional hearings and written summaries of previous surveys conducted by other organizations.

Recognizing our inability to deal with every element of the problem, we chose to concentrate on the following areas: The number and kind of assaults in schools, the extent and nature of criminal incidents, the costs of vandalism, the type and size of security personnel and equipment, the incidence and causes of suspensions and expulsions, alternatives to suspensions and expulsions and local perceptions of remedies for these problems.

Mr. HAWKINS. Dr. Watson, may we simply recess at this point. I see you're getting into summary and conclusions and it may be an appropriate time for us to absent ourselves long enough to vote; we will return.

The committee is in recess for 5 minutes.

[Whereupon, a short recess was taken.]

Mr. HAWKINS. The committee is reconvened. Dr. Watson, we apologize for the interruption. You may continue.

Dr. WATSON. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Our summary and conclusions are based on the data from the 15 public school systems in the cities surveyed, but the implications may be generalized to other systems. Our recommendations are directed to policymakers and suggest, in our view, a more rational and informed approach to the development of public policy than has heretofore been evident in published materials available to the public.

In presenting our study, we are aware of the fact that there are significant differences among scholars and others over the severity of the problem. Some would argue that the incidence has been exaggerated. Others believe we have a catastrophic problem. Proposed solutions to the problems are equally diverse. Some argue for increasing physical security through intrusion alarms and other devices. Others want police throughout the schools. Some educational critics assert that schools must be drastically reorganized because, in their present configuration, they create and encourage crime and violence. The favorite all-purpose solution is to eliminate the root causes of school violence.

In a very perceptive article in the May 1976 Educational Researcher, Prof. James Q. Wilson argues that we must realize crime does not occur in schools in isolation from crime in the rest of society. Much of what we call crime in schools is crime committed by young people who happen to be enrolled in a school or who happen to commit the crime on the way to or from school. It has been made painfully evident by reports and studies that most serious property crime is committed by juveniles and most serious violent crime is committed by young adults. Furthermore, the age at which they begin committing these crimes has been getting lower over the past number of years.

We make no claim to having the solution to the problems we studied. Professor Wilson and others may be right when they argue that we are facing a problem, the causes of which we do not understand very well. It may very well be that a profound shift in values is producing rebellion and disruption. Whatever the nature of the problem, we must use

whatever inteligence and resources we have to ameliorate the problem and our study represents one attempt to contribute to that process.

These are our findings. While the incidence of violent behavior, as measured by numbers of assaults, appears to have increased over the past 5 years in many of the districts surveyed, the trend is not consistently upward, nor have all districts experienced an increase. Some systems, such as Gary, Ind., and Berkeley, Calif., have shown a substantial decrease in the number of assaults against students and teachers over the past 5 years. Improved reporting procedures and methods of collecting data account for a sizeable portion of apparent increases in such incidents in many districts. The average rate of assault for the 1974–75 school year in districts surveyed was 0.26 percent or 26 assaults per 10,000 students enrolled. The percentage of these assaults committed by outsiders has been estimated by school district personnel to range as high as 76 percent in one system. The extent of the problem created by intruders varies from district to district, but most superintendents felt it to be an area of considerable concern.

Suspensions and expulsions were found to be related to disruptive incidents. It was also found that sound policy development and implementation of suspension and expulsion procedures coupled with educational options and alternatives can have a positive effect on the reduction of student violence and vandalism. From one-fourth to one-third of all suspensions in most districts fall into categories; for example, insubordination, where teacher judgment is the primary determinant of suspension. That means that the same behavior as viewed by one teacher may result in a suspension or expulsion, by another teacher may result in a very different kind of amelioration. Furthermore, the most frequently cited cause of student disruption was insensitivity on the part of school staff. In districts like Dade County, Fla., and Oakland, Calif., with programs to alleviate this situation, sharp reductions in both the numbers of suspensions and expulsions and in certain categories of disruptive incidents have occurred.

Crimes against property—burglary, larceny, vandalism, trespass, and arson were found to outnumber crimes against people—robbery, assault, sex offenses, and homicides—by an overall ratio of more than 2 to 1. The single most frequently committed crime reported by school districts in the 1974–75 school year was burglary, with other thefts occurring second in frequency. While the incidence of vandalism has been fluctuating over the past 5 years, the overall trend in the cities for which long-term data are available has been downward.

The survey demonstrated that the size and nature of security forces vary widely from city to city. There was no correlation found between size of the security force and incidence of violence in the schools across districts. The type of security force, however, did make a difference in such districts. School personnel felt that the problems of school violence and vandalism could be most effectively addressed by provision of employment and recreational activities for students after school hours during the school year and in the summer, provision of broader options for students in the form of alternative programs, and increased student and parent participation in educational decisionmaking.

Based upon the data from the 15 cities, we have these recommendations.

One, that the Federal Government should provide funding for local action teams comprised of school district personnel, parents, students, citizens, and representatives of other agencies in the community. It is obvious that amelioration of many of the problems connected with crime cannot be the responsibility of public school systems alone. Federal funding should be provided to these local action teams to explore the use of other municipal agencies along with the private sector, including courts, police, and social service agencies, in order to cooperate with the school districts in combating violence and vandalism in the schools. The funding would be used for planning grants to diagnose the problems within a local school district and to develop a local plan of action.

Two, funding for implementation of the plan developed by the local action team should include a requirement that accurate micro data, school by school as well as systemwide data, be gathered using a methodology which is uniform across the country. Widespread community involvement should continue through the implementation stage, and continued funding should be dependent upon the receipt of accurate and verified reports of success and failure.

Three, the Federal Government should provide funds for the training of security personnel. The training should focus on the integration of security as a part of the teaching, counseling, administrative team. The security director should, however, report to a high-level administrator. The emphasis should not be on police procedures, although some training in this area may be included.

And finally, research and development efforts should be funded and directed by nonschool agencies which would gather, analyze and present data in appropriate form for policymakers at the Federal and State levels. Funding should also be provided for dissemination of information about successful planning, development and implementation procedures in order that these data may be shared by school systems across the country.

Mr. Chairman, we're prepared to entertain questions about specific data from the study and the total report.

Mr. HAWKINS. Thank you, Dr. Watson. May I first commend you on a very excellent presentation and a very excellent survey. The original copy of the report——

Dr. WATSON. Yes; it has been turned over to the staff.

Mr. HAWKINS. First, with respect to the methodology from which the data for the report was obtained, may I ask you whether or not you feel the sampling itself was large enough to justify the conclusions and recommendations that you've made?

Dr. WATSON. Yes, Mr. Chairman. Let me just indicate for the record the cities which were included. On the west coast we used Berkeley, Oakland, and Los Angeles, Calif. The school populations of those cities were: 607,000 in Los Angeles; 14,000 in Berkeley; and 56,911 in Oakland.

Moving across the country we have Detroit, which has 265,000 students; Gary, Ind., with 43,000 students; we had St. Louis, Mo., with 97,000 students.

On the east coast we had Wilmington, Del., with 15,000; Philadelphia with 267,000 students; East Orange, N.J., with 11,000; Camden, N.J., with 20,000; and Plainfield with 9,500 students.

In the South we had Atlanta, Ga., with 90,000 students. I'm sorry, Baltimore would be considered a border city with 182,000 students. We included New Orleans, La., with almost 100,000 students, and Miami-Dade County which had 244,000 students.

So, although this is clearly not a national survey of anything like the majority of the cities, we did have a sampling of various sizes and by geographical distribution.

I might add one other thing: In each of the cities we surveyed, the percentage of students in the school system was a majority of minority students.

Mr. HAWKINS. Does the fact that those cities used in the sampling were largely composed of minorities affect in any way the findings and conclusions?

Dr. WATSON. Yes; it does. We think that it affects it by virtue of the fact that they are all urban and most of the minority youngsters in the country attend urban school districts. The reason we chose those districts was two-fold: One, the fact that they had the whole range of people—white students, Asian students, Spanish-speaking students, black students; two, the systems were located in cities which have all the problems that go with urban centers today—delivery of services, municipal overburden, financing—and they had the kind of staff which represents a microcosm of the kind of staff you have across the country. Finally, many of the previous reports have given the perception that the schools of this country which are concentrated in cities are blackboard jungles.

Mr. HAWKINS. There have been many reports and studies made on school violence. Would you explain to us in what way you think your report differs from the others and in what ways do the findings concur with some of the others?

Dr. WATSON. Our study agrees that violence and vandalism in schools is a problem across the country in school systems. It departs fairly sharply with some of the previous research which indicates that all of the school systems are experiencing consistent increases in all the categories of violence and vandalism over the last 5 years. Our study challenges and disagrees with a number of the previous studies which indicate that a climate of fear has been created in the schools to the extent that education cannot proceed. We did, in fact, find some places where the situation is quite serious. We found others where it was not. We found that the perceptions of those who have to deal with the problem every day varies considerably. The administrators and teachers do not feel helpless. They feel that they have a serious problem, but they feel that with appropriate resources and the kind of commitment which is necessary to deal with the problem, they can, in fact, handle it.

One interesting thing that we found is that in every case—and this is by the report of the people that we interviewed and the forms they filled out—they relate the incidents of violence and vandalism directly to the general economic conditions in the cities in which the school systems are located. Over and over we were told by people, some of

whom have testified before other committees of the Congress and who have submitted testimony, that the relationship between student disruption, violence, vandalism in the school was directly related to the fact that there were few employment opportunities for young people, either part time or during the summer, and also the fact that there was not enough recreation. Those were the number one and two reasons in every school district we surveyed.

Finally, our methodology differs in that we went beyond survey research and sending out a form and having people fill them out. We actually visited the cities, interviewed people, looked at records and went into the schools on site and talked with the people who were dealing with it every day, not only educators but people responsible for security.

Mr. HAWKINS. With respect to several specific statements in the report, may we have some clarification of a few of them. Let me go first of all to page 4 of the report, the last line, "The most frequently cited cause of student disruption was insensitivity on the part of school staff." Would you expand on that statement?

Dr. WATSON. Yes.

We asked in every one of the districts what the people who were in the district perceived to be the cause of violence and vandalism. They were ranked, and the No. 1. cause as viewed by school people was insensitivity by school staff. What that meant was teachers and administrators were not sensitive enough or aware enough of the growth and development problems of young people, changing life styles and the ways of talking and acting which were not what staff members perceived to be appropriate. The kind of behavior which would be common among young people was frequently seen by staff as being insubordinate, disrespectful, and inappropriate, and staff would respond to the young people based upon these perceptions. Teachers and staff who understand this behavior would have, of course, viewed it in the proper context.

Mr. HAWKINS. In discussing the problem of discipline in the classroom with a great number of teachers—although I don't want to generalize because I really haven't discussed it enough to draw any definite conclusion—I am frequently being told by teachers in the classroom that it's almost impossible to teach. They spend most of their time trying to maintain discipline. Many of them are actually afraid of the students because of various threats that are made against them. Thus, because of the general climate of maintaining discipline in the schools they have, in a sense, given up, although they are still there, they're still teaching. In many instances they have no choice but to stay in the particular school although they would like to get away if possible. Is this part of the insenstivity by the school staff or are there those who, for one reason or another, either good or bad, are really unable to teach? They may be good teachers but they have just given up and turned off any possibility of teaching. If that is the reason given by so many teachers explaining why they find it impossible to teach, what suggestions can you offer to help this situation?

Dr. WATSON. First of all, there are clearly some classrooms in this country where teachers spend a major portion of their time trying to maintain order so they can teach. The students are disruptive or out

of control. In that same building and in the same district there will be other classrooms where these same youngsters are clearly not disruptive and teaching and learning are going on.

Responding to the second part of the question, there are some teachers who literally have given up on trying to teach youngsters because of the conditions we've just described and I think that grows out of a number of reasons. One, that many of our teacher-training institutions are teaching people to teach one particular kind of youngster which means the middle-class youngster who comes to school and is going to be fairly compliant and follow the rules of the teacher and the school. The second is that in a number of our cities we have teachers who were trained under that model and who are accustomed to dealing with a population of youngsters who are no longer in the school. There are teachers who literally do not know how to deal effectively with poor youngsters and minority youngsters and because they cannot understand the way they behave and because they have certain attitudes about these youngsters, they find it very difficult, if not impossible, to teach them. That is not the fault of the child; it is the fault of the teacher.

One other thing, you can't separate the climate of the school from the kind of leadership it has. A principal who knows how to create a climate for learning and the teachers that know how to respond to that. It is a very complicated question because it also relates to the way you provide learning opportunities for young people. I would suggest to you that based not only upon this survey but 21 years of experience in the field at every level, that there is no single learning style which is appropriate to every child. There is no single way in which young people ought to be taught and I think that the standards of behavior vary considerably. I think that the styles of young people are very different today in their relationships to adults and authority. Another thing almost never talked about is the fact that school people are forced to treat young people in very different ways today as a result of the rulings of the courts which demand due process for young people. They cannot be treated arbitrarily the way they were years ago when I was a student in school. Students have rights, and many people have found it very difficult to relate to young people when they have rights.

The other thing is that young people reach the age of majority now at 18. They are, in fact, adults, and many of them are still in school and have to be treated in a different way.

The last part of your question related to what are some of the suggestions. What we have found as a basis not only of this study but looking at programs and practices which have been fairly successful in dealing with disruptive youngsters—who, by the way, represent a decided minority in schools, a larger minority than it was 10 years ago but clearly a minority in the schools—are people who have found ways of providing alternative ways of educating these young people.

We also found—and we want to be very candid and honest about this—that it is sometimes necessary to remove a certain percentage of youngsters from the standard environment so that they do not interfere with the education of the overwhelming majority. But let us hasten to add that in the cities that have found it necessary to do

this, the ones that have been most effective have provided educational opportunities and alternatives within the schools or outside of the schools. These systems have not put students out on the street and depended on the criminal justice system to deal with youngsters where that is clearly inappropriate.

And one other thing that Ms. Hammond has just pointed out to me, is that the use of suspension may, in fact, exacerbate discipline problems when the students return to class.

Let me cite one city which I think has been outstanding in dealing with the exclusion and the suspension problem and that is Miami-Dade County, Fla. where over a period of over 5 years they not only have reduced in a significant way the numbers of suspensions but, in fact, have eliminated exclusions from the public schools. What they have done is to insist upon due process for young people but also to spend a good deal of time and money in creating an alternative educational environment for those who heretofore have been put out on the street.

Mr. HAWKINS. On page 5 of the report, in the third paragraph, you say that the type of security force did make a difference in certain districts. Could you be a little clearer as to what type of security force you think is acceptable and which type is unacceptable?

Dr. WATSON. Yes. Let me talk about three cities just to illustrate that. In Atlanta, which has the smallest security force of any of the cities that we looked at, their total force, I think, is 16 including supervisors. These are people who worked very closely with the principals and the counselors in the schools. They do not arrest students but clearly have the attitude and the training that comes with law enforcement. They have almost instantaneous information of every disruptive incident which occurs in the schools. It comes directly in on a computer to the security office at the central office.

Let me give you one example of what happens when that kind of cooperation and information is fed into a security force. They had in one of the school districts in Atlanta a good deal of theft, stealing of things which can be immediately fenced and sold. As a result of pinpointing the number of incidents in a specific area, the Atlanta security began to watch and hone in on a particular group of schools which had a lot of expensive equipment which was being stolen. They set it up with the help of the local police and captured the people who had been breaking into the schools and stealing this equipment, taking it to Mississippi and fencing it, and it was an organized ring of professionals. Not one of them was a student. That is one example of what I mean by the type of security and the kinds of techniques they use.

In Philadelphia they have a large number of people, over 700 as a matter of fact, who may in a general sense be called security people, nonteaching assistants who patrol the halls, support teachers and that kind of thing, and then they have a trained security force, a large number of whom are retired policemen. The security force is very effective in what they do in terms of maintaining order, watching the kind of situations which could erupt into a major disruptive incident, a riot, a confrontation, and that kind of thing. In terms of the incidents of disruption, violence, and the like, we find that the numbers, over

700 in Philadelphia, have not had a major impact on reducing the number of incidents. This is one of the cities where it's going up.

Baltimore is the third city where they have a director of security who reports to the executive deputy superintendent of schools; their attitude is law and order and that means making it possible for the regular activies of the schools to go on. In the past year the incidence of violence at athletic events—which are still held at night in Baltimore—was such that it was impossible for adults and children to go to athletic events and feel safe. The executive deputy superintendent made the statement that there was no way that a small minority of people were going to prevent the smooth operation of the schools and deprive young people of the opportunity to participate in activities. They removed those youngsters, set the climate where they knew that if any kind of disruptive incident occurred, they were going to be dealt with in a police manner. They still have the activities going on at night. Disruptive people have been removed and the word has gone out, and the kind of behavior that disrupted those activities is much smaller.

So it's the kind of force which is much more important than the numbers. It's also the training.

Mr. HAWKINS. Thank you, Dr. Watson. I have several other questions, but let me yield at this time to my colleague, Mr. Clay.

Mr. CLAY. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Dr. Watson, in each of your four recommendations there is provision for funding by the Federal Government. There is some program for the local action teams, implementation of the plan developed by the team, funds for retaining security personnel and then funds for research and development. Now how much, approximately, would this cost to implement these recommendations?

Dr. WATSON. I can't answer that, Congressman Clay.

Mr. CLAY. Do you have any idea what the savings would be?

Dr. WATSON. Oh, I'm absolutely certain that the savings would be considerable and in terms of strategy, it would probably be smart to try that in 15 or 20 cities to monitor and gather the kind of data we're talking about before any full-scale funding for the operation went on. But if you can eliminate—let's just take a look, to give you an example of the cost of vandalism in several of the cities.

From 1974–75 in Baltimore, $808,000 just in vandalism. In Detroit, Mich. over $1 million in 1 year. In Los Angeles over $3 million. In New Orleans over $400,000 plus; Philadelphia $2 million to $3 million per year. In St. Louis $1 million and over in terms of vandalism and, incidently, Congressman Clay, and you probably know this, we have the figure that 76 percent of the assaults occurred by outsiders. What that means in terms of the way teachers react to young people and principals react to persons coming into the building and attacking either a student or a teacher or a principal, it is very difficult to estimate in terms of the quality of education in a building like that. It seems to me that the funding for the training of a small force to keep people out of the buildings in that particular situation could have significant savings in terms of the school climate, learning, and teaching.

Mr. CLAY. You spoke of root causes earlier in your presentation; is there any relationship between 70-percent assaults by outsiders and those outsider's inability to get employment?

Dr. WATSON. Absolutely. Very clear. You know not only from this study but from work that has been done at Johns Hopkins for years that when the economy declines and unemployment is very high, you have not only increases in theft and in assault but in all the other pathologies that afflict a society when people want to work and cannot find employment, not even part-time employment. It seems to me that that kind of data is self-evident, has been available for years, and has a special significance in this country. One of the ways you get dignity in the United States, one of the ways you have meaning in your life, is to be employed. The psychological cost to a person who wants to work and can't get employment is inestimable. I find it very difficult to find words to describe that phenomenon.

Mr. CLAY. Well, since part-time and summer employment was one of the most frequently recommended remedies against violence, what sort of program would you recommend in the area of youth employment?

Dr. WATSON. I would like to see in the area of youth employment real work which would improve the basic infrastructure of school systems, the basic infrastructure of cities, so that we have long-term gains from that kind of work and the young people really learn something in doing it. I think we do a disservice to taxpayers in this country when we put people to work at make work kinds of activities to keep them quiet. I think we do a disservice to the long-term development of cities and school systems when there is not a lasting return from that kind of work. We could begin to introduce people into the trades through that work. We could begin to introduce people into the whole service area, which is the fastest growing area in employment in this country. More importantly for educators, we could begin to tie the kind of work that young people do part time and during the summers to an educational system which in the career and vocational areas is too often out of date. It will have a double payoff at least; one in what it does for a youngster or young person by providing money and a job and dignity, but also in creating the kind of tension between the educational system and the employment areas which forces them to up-grade the quality of the training that they offer in schools and vocational centers.

Mr. CLAY. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Mr. HAWKINS. The committee will recess for a few minutes to allow the members to vote. We will reconvene in a few minutes. I anticipate the hearing will not be very much longer. I have several questions that I think should be made a matter of the record, and I hope we can come back just as quickly as possible. The minority counsel, I think may also want to ask several questions.

The committee is in recess.

[Whereupon, a short recess was taken.]

Mr. HAWKINS. The committee will come to order.

Mr. LAVOR. Mr. Chairman, I had an opportunity to speak with Dr. Watson during the break and I have some questions which I think might be helpful to the committee.

Dr. Watson, when you conducted your survey, did you have much factual involvement with students themselves and knowing the years you have had working with young people, what was their attitude toward the sensitivity question? What did they say?

Dr. WATSON. I think the attitude of the students would be that they want first, more freedom, and that translates into a number of things. Most of what they want is to be respected for what they are, as human beings, and also to have a little more—a lot more flexibility and freedom in the way the learning process goes on.

One of the things we find is that the personality of the teacher becomes less and less important if the students believe the teacher really respects them and likes them. The way the teacher organizes the classroom is far less relevant than it is if they think the teacher does not respect them or like them. That is one thing.

Another thing which may fly in the face of what people believe is that if you could get a survey of students, I am convinced that if a small number of students was disrupting the educational process so that a majority of students could not learn, they would want those students removed from that environment. They don't want them thrown in jail, they want them dealt with some place else in a different manner so that learning in the school environment can go on.

Mr. LAVOR. If the committee were to develop legislation to address the questions and recommendations raised in your report, how would—what would you suggest they do regarding the sensitivity question and picking up on what you said, you seem to have a contradiction or there appeared to be a contradiction between leaning toward more discipline in the school by parents and teachers and your answer regarding what students feel about the learning climate?

Dr. WATSON. Well, first of all, I think that the move toward basics, the back to basics notion and the fundamentalist notion in schools, is generated primarily by teachers, administrators, and parents who are concerned about discipline, their notion of discipline. The Gallup polls and other polls support that for at least the last 5 or 6 years, discipline is the No. 1 problem.

Second, I think there are people who are promoting back to basics in an attempt to create a world which never existed in the public schools as a matter of fact, and one which is not going to deal with the fundamental problem of achievement—which is what a lot of parents are concerned about. Many parents believe that if you sit youngsters down, make them behave, dress in a certain way, instill obedience, and drill them, then young people are going to learn how to read and write, add and subtract, and all that. I suggest to you that is at variance with the facts. As a matter of fact some youngsters do learn very well under those situations. We know that there are a large number of other youngsters who do not. But I am convinced that a climate of fear and/or a climate of rigidity is not conducive to learning at any level.

In terms of the reduction of insensitivity and trying to improve the performance of people who are in the field already, I am convinced that any program which addresses this problem must not be placed in the universities—in this instance—to carryout but must include a combination of people from school systems who deal with the prob-

lems every day and the university people who certify and provide the basic training. That creates a kind of tension between the training institution and the people who deal with problems every day so that you can increase the probability that what is included in an in-service training program is appropriate. In this way teachers and others learn how to deal with yougsters on a more sensitive and knowledgable basis. The program will include the essential elements. As you know, as we were talking earlier, the emphasis in too many teacher training programs, even today, is on formalized theory and concepts rather than looking at the reality of the school situation, the youngster you're going to deal with, and what the new demands are.

Mr. LaVor. Mr. Chairman, I know you have a vote but I'd like to ask just one more question. Doctor, as you conducted your survey, did you find much Federal money being used by the schools and second, what were the sources of the money and did you find the moneys effective?

Dr. Watson. The sources are many and varied. Part of the money is from the operating budget obviously. Some of it comes out of title I in certain schools. Some of it came from foundations, some of it came from State sources, and there was a good deal of money which was shared with other agencies that impact on young people: juvenile courts, social service agencies, youth divisions of settlement houses, police and whatever. We did not get into the sources of the funding for specific programs. Some of it clearly was from Federal sources and other was from State sources. The one thing which was very clear was that there wasn't enough. Almost every one of the districts we looked at was having financial difficulty, not in this area but financial difficulties in maintaining an educational program. Philadelphia is one example, facing an $80 to $100 million deficit.

Mr. LaVor. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Mr. Hawkins. Thank you.

Dr. Watson, with respect to certainly one of your key recommendations, the funding of local action teams, are there any examples of the use of this technique in any of the areas that you studied?

Dr. Watson. I think probably the best example of system-wide local action team would be in Oakland, Calif. This has been developed over a period of about 5 or 6 years. A number of cities have teams around a number of particular schools in which you have activist parents, principals, and teachers who believe in bringing in students into the decisionmaking process.

Mr. Hawkins. There is some experience?

Dr. Watson. Yes.

Mr. Hawkins. Some experience to use and build on?

Dr. Watson. Let me just cite some from the full report. The Master Plan Citizens Committee of Oakland, Calif. is probably the best model we know. This is something that has been documented before and we have cited in here the report which was done by the Rockefeller Foundation which documented that entire process in Oakland, Calif. because Rockefeller had provided funding to get the process started.

The same kind of thing is now proceeding on a system-wide basis as well as a unit basis in New Orleans, La., in Baltimore, Md., and in Miami, Fla., and an effort is to begin in Memphis, Tenn. this fall.

There are other models around and we can give you the details on them.

Mr. HAWKINS. I was going to ask Ms. Hammond whether or not she wanted to elaborate on the testimony. I know that she has devoted considerable time to the study and actually conducted many of the surveys. I wish to commend her for a very excellent participation. Would you care to make some comment at this time, Ms. Hammond?

Ms. HAMMOND. Thank you.

I don't have any generalized comments. If there were specific questions around certain issues, I'd be happy to address those, but other than what Dr. Watson has said——

Mr. HAWKINS. Well, in view of the fact that I think we will ask both of you to return to the committee at some later time because there are some aspects of the study that might be developed still further, such as the policy questions, I will not ask any further questions at this time. The House has a vote pending on a bill, the Alcohol Abuse and Prevention Act, which falls a little bit within the scope of this study.

May I again, Dr. Watson, thank you and also Ms. Hammond for the very excellent presentation and the most helpful study that you have completed. We certainly want to express the desire for you to return to the subcommittee and participate in our deliberations in this particular field. This is just the beginning of exploration into this very vital subject matter and we certainly look forward to your continued cooperation.

With that, the committee is adjourned.

[Whereupon, at 11:25 a.m., the subcommittee adjourned.]

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